RESIDENTS AND DESTINATION BRANDS: UNDERSTANDING RESIDENTS' DESTINATION BRAND AMBASSADOR BEHAVIOR AND ITS ANTECEDENTS

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Philipp Wassler

ABSTRACT

Although residents have been widely recognized as an important destination brand stakeholder, their role in the destination branding process is still not fully understood (Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2010; Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Pike, 2009). Indeed, past studies have mostly conceptualized their position as a threat to a DMO due to their assumed intrinsically diverging interests. Only recently, scholars have detected the great amount of benefit that residents hold for the success of a destination brand through their involvement in the respective development and promotion (e.g. Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). Following the notion that through this engagement residents can be called 'brand ambassadors', this effective behavior has been defined as 'residents' destination brand ambassador behavior' (BAB). There is anyhow, in theory and in practice, a general lack of understanding of what causes this kind of behavior in residents (Braun et al., 2013) and the aim of this study is thus to propose and empirically test a framework explaining the antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior. As little is known in regard, a thorough literature review conceptualizes the notion of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and aims at understanding how it has been used in past research. Also, possible antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior are introduced and hypotheses for a better understanding of the concept are developed.

Factors identified as possible antecedents are: (1) Residents' destination brand self-congruity, (2) Residents' psychological destination brand empowerment, (3) Residents' public trust in destination brand authorities, and (4) Residents' destination

brand attitude, whereas (5) Residents' place attachment is identified as a likely moderator on the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' brand ambassador intention. The relationships among these constructs were finally conceptualized in 9 hypotheses. To achieve the aforementioned research objectives, this study adopted a structural equation modeling approach. Choosing the case of Hong Kong and the related destination brand 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City', Hong Kong permanent residents (HKPRs) were selected as the target population and a quota sampling approach based on age, gender and area of residency was employed through the use of online survey questionnaires. In order to validate the measurement items adapted from existing literature, a qualitative pre-study involving semi-structured in-depth interviews with 15 HKPRs was held, followed by a panel of experts with 7 topic-experienced scholars. Finally, a pilot study, which returned 199 valid questionnaires, was launched online. After the common procedures for validating a questionnaire, including principal component analysis, an improved version was sent for the main survey. 651 valid questionnaires were returned and after the proposed model was validated using cross-validation of a split data sample, the structural model was tested with the AMOS 20.0 software. The findings show strong support for the proposed model by supporting 8 of the 9 initially proposed hypotheses; only the moderating function of residents' place attachment on the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' brand ambassador behavioral intention was not supported. An added open-ended question also provided suggestions for other possible antecedents for residents' destination brand ambassador behavior. While the proposed model was found to explain up to 80% of the variance in the brand ambassador behavioral intentions construct, in particular self-congruity was found to be a strong related antecedent.

In addition to successfully reaching all the proposed research objectives, this study also leads to a variety of applications for both, academics and practitioners. First, the notion of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior was successfully conceptualized, aiding the understanding of the concept in related studies. Next, the findings offer a reliable framework to tourism scholars, which broadens the understanding of both, antecedents of residents' destination brand attitude and brand ambassador behavioral intentions. While this study introduces the notions of psychological empowerment and public trust into the field, in particular self-congruity is highlighted as a key concept to be considered when studying residents and destination brands. Finally, it is empirically proven that residents showing positive brand attitude can indeed aid DMOs through positive behavioral intentions, highlighting their role as a friend and not only foe in the destination branding process. This is also hoped to assist the destination branding process for practitioners by proposing important concepts which, when included in the brand, could diminish the risks for counter-branding campaigns and related public indignation. In particular for the case of Hong Kong, where the Tourism Board has claimed that resident involvement is crucial for their destination brand, the qualitative pre-study identifies several context-specific concerns and the related framework offers general concepts which could further foster this collaboration.

This study finally acknowledges several limitations and offers directions for future research. First, brand ambassador behavior was measured as intentions, which might have biased residents towards responding more positively. Also, the study was held in Hong Kong and its respondents were largely mono-cultural, which opens the door for future research testing the model in other geographic and cultural contexts. The choice of an online panel and quota sampling is also a limitation in capturing the heterogeneity of the highly complex resident stakeholder. It is hoped that future studies can bridge this gap, as well as test the other identified possible antecedents in a follow-up empirical research.

Keywords: Destination branding, residents, destination brand ambassador behavior, internal destination branding, brand attitude, brand self-congruity, trust, psychological empowerment

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

FOREWORD

This chapter offers a view of the background information surrounding this study. First, it highlights the importance of destination branding for both, academics and practitioners. This is followed by a discussion on how the concept has been understood up to date. It is briefly discussed in how far corporate branding theory has contributed to destination branding as a topic and which issues remain unresolved. In particular, the role of residents as a tourist destination stakeholder is highlighted in terms of dangers and opportunities for the brand creators and implementers. The specific case of the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' destination brand is underlined. Following is the discussion on the problem statement of this research and the relevant research objectives of the given study.

1.1. Destination branding in theory and practice

In times where consumer confidence is low, unemployment is high and most market areas are growing to be more and more competitive, the branding and marketing activities around destinations have become an increasingly 'hot' topic (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2002). With tourism growing at a steady base, government authorities around the globe are realizing the travel industry's potential for a destination's economic boost even in these difficult times. Eventually this has created a highly competitive environment among the perpetually increasing number of marketed destinations and subsequently the need for a brand which is able to provide a solid competitive advantage (Anholt, 2002).

In general, destination branding can be defined a broad set of efforts by a country, industry groups or a responsible government authority in order to market places they represent (Papadopoulos, 2004). Although in theory similar to product and service branding, effective destination branding is still a tough challenge for practitioners and the numbers of successful destination brands on the market are still low (Tasci & Kozak, 2006). A possible reason therefore is that the topic is quite recent. Although it has become fairly popular since the early 90's (Cai, 2002; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011), related literature is still limited and often not easy to apply in practice. A recent shift in the still young field has contributed more to a significant gap among academia and destination marketers.

While the earliest contributions to the topic are mostly conceptual papers and case studies (Pike, 2009), many recent studies have moved to a more abstract notion of destination branding and of what constitutes the brand itself. Anholt (2002) for example, states that a brand has not to be seen the same as a destination marketing organization's (DMO) promotional efforts, but is rather a subjective and personal perception of a destination in the mind of the beholder. Indeed, in the case of destinations, most people are likely to have a destination image present in their heads, even without ever having heard about the related branding efforts (Tasci & Kozak, 2006). Ultimately this has led to confusion on what destination branding really means and this high level of complexity has seemingly scared both, academics and practitioners, to connect theory and practice.

Being a recent topic, destination branding also suffers from a lack of related theory. As a possible solution, scholars have heavily drawn concepts from corporate branding.

The notion of corporate branding can be summed up as branding an organization and all its members, rather than just an individual product or service (Knox & Bickerton, 2003). This is especially important due to the fact that corporate brands share the same high level of complexity, especially related to stakeholder involvement. (Fan, 2006; Kaplan, Yurt, Guneri, & Kurtulus, 2010; Roberts & Dowling, 2002). Unfortunately, corporate branding theory has not always given an efficient solution to all the problems connected to destination branding. One particular persisting issue is especially tough to be solved even by the application of corporate branding concepts. Destination brands do not only stand for intangible goods and services, but do represent places, people and ideologies (Hankinson, 2004). Unlike corporations, which pay their employees to work and act according their established brand identity, residents of a destination are not paid to align and cannot look for a more suitable employer if they disagree with living the brand (Hospers, 2010; Mitchell, 2002). Although residents are both, potentially beneficial and harmful for the creation and implementation of a destination brand (Kavaratzis, 2004), their role in the branding process is still widely ignored in theory in practice (Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013).

1.2. Residents - a forgotten destination brand stakeholder?

While residents have been acknowledged by most scholars as a destination brand stakeholder, their precise role in the branding process has not been sufficiently researched (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). This has not only caused a significant lack of related literature, but ultimately has led to residents' consideration in the branding process as being a persisting unresolved issue also for practitioners in destination branding (Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2010; Pike, 2009).

Only recently there has been awareness among scholars and practitioners alike to consider resident-targeted internal branding efforts for tourist destinations (e.g. Hospers, 2010; Kavaratzis, 2004). This notion of internal branding comes from the corporate idea that by satisfying and fulfilling employee motivations, they will be more motivated in enhancing external customer satisfaction and loyalty (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003). In other words, satisfied employees will be more willing to fulfill the brand promise. Nonetheless, as residents and other internal destination brand stakeholders are not employees of a company, their relationship with a destination brand is not regulated by contracts, but rather by brand communication (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). It is therefore of utmost importance for destination managers to not only follow-up their brand perception from a tourists point of view, but also residents should be assessed and monitored on their brand evaluation and assessment (Sartori, Mottironi, & Antonioli Corigliano, 2012).

On a first sight it seems therefore that residents' are a bigger threat than benefactor for destination brands. Indeed, past studies have often shown residents and DMOs as having diverging interests (e.g. Holcomb, 1999), and the consideration of residents' in the brand development and implementation was therefore viewed largely as an ethical and socio-cultural issue. Several examples of destination branding gone bad due to residents' indignation have indeed emerged throughout the last years, underlining the danger for the success of a campaign if this matter is not dealt with properly. Also, branding literature has been picking up a few of these notorious examples. Counter-branding campaigns led by residents, such as Amsterdam’s 'I AMsterdamned', Hamburg’s 'Not in our Name' (see Figure 1.1.), and Birmingham’s 'It’s not shit' have attracted the attention of marketers and scholars alike. In extremis, Manchester’s 'We are Up and Going' brand was forced to shut its function due to the resistance of residents (Braun et al., 2013).

Figure 1.1. Brand Hamburg 'Not in our Name' logo

(Source: www.rechtaufstadt.net, 2013)

Only most recently another viewpoint on the role of residents as a destination brand stakeholder has emerged. Not only are residents a threat to the success of a destination brand, but they are believed to also hold the potential to be a brand’s biggest promoter (Kavaratzis, 2004). As the brand’s largest stakeholder, residents’ are believed to be able to help with the development and promotion of a destination brand, ultimately acting as destination brand ambassadors (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a).

Several branding authorities have asked and encouraged residents’ contribution to the branding process. The 'Be Berlin' brand was cited as one successful example by Braun et al. (2013), managing to express residents’ feelings within the brand by connecting the later to their personal lives. Other branding authorities have created organized ambassador networks for residents in order to encourage their contribution and enhance their personal connection to the destination brand (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). Although also academics have shown awareness about this topic in the last years, literature on the field seems still to be scarce (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). Considering the potential which residents hold for the success of a destination brand by acting as brand ambassadors, it is deemed of utmost importance for both, academics and practitioners, to investigate this concept further. Especially it is necessary to examine what triggers this kind of ambassador behavior and if its antecedents can be stimulated by internal branding efforts targeting residents.

1.3. 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'

Hong Kong's 'Asia’s World City' brand was developed by local authorities in 2001, born out of specific ideas which had emerged during the 1997 return of the city to the People’s Republic of China (BrandHK, 2012). Initially, several branding campaigns were launched portraying Hong Kong as 'witty', 'sharp', 'tough', and 'energetic' (Donald & Gammack, 2007). Unfortunately, campaigns were started and discarded at a fast pace, ranging from the 'City of Life' through the 'Hong Kong - Love it! Live it!' brands. This resulted in more confusion than gain and ultimately, it culminated in doubt if an identity as complex as Hong Kong can be branded at all. Donald and Gammack (2007, p. 79) quote a branding expert expressing his skepticism with the local branding efforts in a 2003 newspaper report:

> From Harbour Fest to the Disney theme park, to even the new ten-dollar note, Hong Kong’s marketeers were failing to send out a coherent message

> to the world, Mr Steiner said yesterday. The man behind the logos of HSBC, the Hong Kong Jockey Club, and the bank notes issued by Standard Charter Bank, even went so far as to suggest to his Foreign Correspondent's Club audience, that the city could learn a little from Adolf Hitler. Hong Kong had a tendency to go from arrogance to panic with no intervening steps, and this had been particularly true since the onset of the Asian economic crisis. Hong Kong had lurched from being a place where wonders never ceased, to being City of Life, the city had toyed with branding itself the Manhattan of Asia and had more recently morphed into Asia's World City, where people were being encouraged to 'Live It, Love It'. In the wake of SARS the city even tried to adopt the famed 'I Love New York' as its own. The problem with these fragmented attempts is very much that they can backfire, Mr Steiner said.

Facing this and other widespread criticism, the Hong Kong Government reacted by launching the BrandHK program, which after an extensive period of research with opinion leaders has given birth to the current 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand (BrandHK, 2012).

According to BrandHK (2012), in 2010 the visual identity of the brand was re-elaborated and the brand identity was adjusted to a shared vision for both, authorities and residents. This has resulted in five core values which lie at the foundations of the brand, namely 'excellence', 'free', 'enterprising', 'innovative', and 'quality living'.

In addition to the brand identity, also the logo of the brand has been revised in 2010. Authorities have stated that the reason was to give it a look which is more contemporary, yet faithful to the established brand identity (BrandHK, 2012). Five official stores throughout Hong Kong and an official online-store sell merchandise items representing the logo and other visual manifestations of the brand. Among these rank t-shirts, scarves, caps, neckties, umbrellas, usb-readers, tattoo-stickers and other promotional items (BrandHK, 2012). The dragon is meant to symbolize a mix between Hong Kong's strongly Chinese past and its energetic, modernized present in a fusion of East and West (see Figure 1.2.). There are three ribbons extending from the dragon. Blue stands for the sky, green for sustainable environment and the red ribbon traces the shapes of the Lion Rock, a local landmark. The Lion Rock, according to branding authorities, represents the residents' 'can do' spirit (BrandHK, 2012). Currently the logo is being used in three versions, namely English, Chinese and bilingual.

Figure 1.2. The current bilingual version of the brand logo

(Source: BrandHK, 2013)

1.4. Resident involvement in 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'

Looking on the past years of Hong Kong's branding efforts, it is evident that the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand has been and is still relying on a heavy resident involvement in brand development and implementation, making it an ideal case for investigating residents' BAB. Hong Kong's colonial past and its special status within China reinforce the special need of attention for residents and their complex identity when shaping the brand (Donald & Gammack, 2007).

As the brand was launched in 2001, research was held primarily with external stakeholders such as overseas audiences in order to establish the brand identity. Since 2008, government authorities have changed direction by conducting extensive research with internal stakeholders, such as the business community, opinion leaders, students and the general public (Fleishman-Hillard Hong Kong Ltd. & Taylor Nelson Sofres, 2010). Accordingly, residents' involvement in the branding process gained a major focus of attention with an extensive government-lead research in 2008-2009.

According to Fleishman-Hillard Hong Kong Ltd. and Taylor Nelson Sofres (2010), the local government focused extensively on aligning the brand of Hong Kong with the vision of the residents, which were identified as one of the brand's key-stakeholders. Accordingly, three phases of research were held by the authorities involving the general public. In 2008, a qualitative focus group study was launched with Hong Kong residents (3 groups with 24 participants). Following, a survey with 300 respondents was conducted, 10 in-depth interviews and two ethnographies followed. The results show that, according to the respondents, the most applicable attributes for Hong Kong today are 'well-connected', 'cosmopolitan', 'fair and just legal system', 'materialistic', 'people work hard', 'stable and secure', 'people enjoy freedom', 'efficient', and 'full of energy'.

In 2008, in addition to the investigation of residents' contemporary perceptions of Hong Kong, authorities have decided to launch 'myhk2020.com', an online brand-aimed platform 'specially designed and created to engage the local community, particularly youths, and proactively solicit their views' (Fleishman-Hillard Hong Kong Ltd. & Taylor Nelson Sofres, 2010, p. 3) . In its most basic, residents were encouraged to share their vision of Hong Kong in 2020. The online platform gave various options on how to do so, among which multi-media submission options and weekly polls and competitions (see Figure 1.3.). Residents have largely participated in these initiatives, with myhk2020.com receiving 31.400 visits in its 10 weeks of operations and 1.300 multi-media submissions and responses (Fleishman-Hillard Hong Kong Ltd. & Taylor Nelson Sofres, 2010).

Figure 1.3. A winning painting from 'Create Hong Kong 2020' drawing contest

(Source: BrandHK, 2013)

As a results of these research processes, several values have been identified, which are believed to better reflect residents' beliefs and values within the brand and the core values of the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand have been restructured accordingly (BrandHK, 2012). 'Innovative' and 'quality living' have been added to the already existing values 'excellence', 'free' and 'enterprising'.

Although myhk2020 came to a close and the brand has been restructured accordingly, residents' involvement in the branding process was and is a persisting priority of the local authorities. Currently, the government runs an ambassador-website named 'Faces of Hong Kong', in which residents are encouraged to contribute text, photos, drawings and videos expressing their view of Hong Kong for the brand (see Figure 1.4.). While many pictures are showcased on the official website, 30 w inners have been chosen by the general public, which are perceived as being the best in 'bringing the Hong Kong brand alive' (BrandHK, 2012). Even after this event, residents are still encouraged to send their pictures and contributions for showcase on the platform.

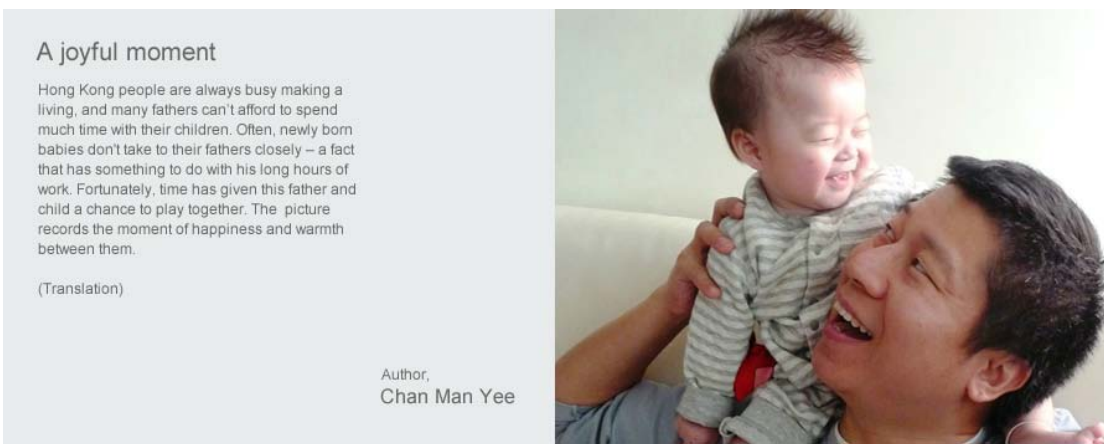

Figure 1.4. One of the 30 highest rated photographs submitted

(Source: BrandHK, 2013)

Responsible authorities for the 'Hong Kong – Asia’s World City' brand claim that collaboration with the public is and will be an essential tool for the brand’s effectiveness and consistency (BrandHK, 2012). While residents involvement in effective destination branding is globally still in its infancy, Hong Kong authorities and the relevant destination brand have proven to be concerned about this issue and to pay a high amount of attention to internal stakeholders in general.

Summarizing, the numerous initiatives which have been undertaken to involve internal stakeholders and the high level of participation from the residents’ side suggest that the 'Hong Kong – Asia’s World City' brand and subsequently Hong Kong as a study location are highly suitable for investigating the antecedents of residents’ brand ambassador behavior (BAB). Currently, many opportunities for various forms of participation are offered to the Hong Kong residents, while the government claims that this trend will continue in the future. Nonetheless, there is not much academic attention paid to the subject in this specific context and most research is government based and funded. Based on this case and on the other discussed subjects, the following problem statement has been formed for this research.

1.5. Problem statement

While most of the tourism related studies concerning residents focus on perceived impact and subsequent behavior, the role of residents in the destination branding process has not been researched extensively (Braun, Kavaratzis & Zenker, 2013). This research gap is of major importance because, besides being the most neglected destination brand stakeholder, residents are also believed to be the most fruitful one if dealt with correctly by brand creators and implementers (Kavaratzis, 2004).

The lack of understanding of what spurs residents' brand supporting behavior has also resulted in persistent problems in community-based branding, such as absence of support and in some cases failure of the brand (Baker, 2009; Braun et al., 2013). With the ultimate goal of establishing brand equity for a destination, DMOs need to investigate the external environment and understand the brand vision for their most important stakeholders, with residents being one of the most critical (Park, Cai, & Lehto, 2009). Accordingly, once the brand is implemented it has to be evaluated. Considering previous success with residents, this can be done by judging collaborative initiatives (Park et al., 2009). What causes this residents' brand supporting behavior is nevertheless not well understood and researched (Braun et al., 2013). It is suggested that DMO's can possibly encourage BAB by paying sufficient attention to the internal perspectives on their destination brand, i.e. spurring positive brand perception and acceptance (Gartner, 2009).

If the DMO reaches a clear understanding of what causes residents' destination BAB, several actions can be taken to enhance the focus on the causes and ultimately the amount of the later. In practice this has happened in several occasions, but supporting theory is still scarce (Hospers, 2010). Nonetheless, spurring BAB needs a carefully elaborated plan and consideration of internal destination planning by incorporating residents' core values into the brand identity, making them aware that their values are an essential part of the brand. Ultimately, this also needs the adoption of encouraging management principles (Baker, 2009). If antecedents of BAB are identified successfully, the destination brand identity should assure to take them into account and negotiate them with external perspectives. This can result in the strengthening, renewal or redefinition of a destination brand identity and its promotion through coordinated marketing programs (Lee, 2009). It is therefore deemed to be of the utmost importance to bridge this breach in theory and to identify the antecedents of residents' destination BAB. In order to guarantee the success of practical destination branding, antecedents can be incorporated and emphasized in the brand development and implementation. This study is meant to bridge this gap in destination branding literature.

Finally, it can be summarized that better understanding on how to target residents with a destination brand will help DMO's in two ways, based on the fact that residents are both, a vital participant as well as an audience in the destination branding process (Zenker & Seigis, 2012).

1. First, public resistance to branding campaigns and highly counterproductive counter-branding activities from the residents' side can be avoided (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). This issues has been strengthened by the fact that due to increasing global homogeneity national identity and its representation have taken a particularly delicate role in recent times (Konečnik & Go, 2008), increasing the challenge for effective destination branding. Not only can residents' hostile activities generate problems in establishing the brand identity as decided by the authorities, but are able to ultimately affect a tourists' experience with a certain destination. If residents do not align with the destination brand and fulfill what the brand has promised, tourist satisfaction can be influenced negatively because

previous expectations are not met (Freire, 2009; Gnoth, 2002). Accordingly, Cai, Gartner and Munar (2009, p. 6) state that 'for tourists to have a positive interactive experience and to nurture their loyalty to a destination, the community must participate in developing its brand'.

2. Second, by avoiding negatives and succeeding in gaining a favorable residents' attitude towards a destination brand, DMO's can gain resident support in brand formation and implementation (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). In particular residents' destination BAB, although scarcely dealt with in literature, is believed to be the ultimate goal for a destination marketing organization (DMO) when targeting residents with a destination brand (Choo, Park & Petrick, 2011). On the core of this concept lies that residents are not only a major attraction of a destination and the relative brand, but can effectively contribute to the brand formation and implementation, spurred by the feeling of being personally connected to the brand (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a).

1.6. Research objectives

Based on the previous discussion, the research objectives are defined as follows:

1. To conceptualize the notion of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and understand how it has been used in past research.
2. To recognize possible antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior based on the roles residents play in the destination branding process.

3. To propose and empirically test the framework explaining the antecedents of residents’ destination brand ambassador behavior.

1.7. List of definitions

In order to facilitate the understanding of the research, a short list of definitions is provided, explaining the main concepts and constructs used for this research.

- **Destination brand:**

A symbolic construct that consists of name, term, sign, symbol, design, or combination of these, created deliberately to identify a phenomenon (destination) and differentiate it from similar phenomena by adding particular meaning to it (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012). The term is not adopted only as tourism-related and therefore used as synonymous with place brand. For this study, the term is used to describe the phenomenon 'Hong Kong – Asia’s World City'.

- **Residents:**

For this study Hong Kong residents are uses as synonymous with HKPRs (Hong Kong Permanent Residents) as defined in the Hong Kong Basic Law, Article 24 (see Chapter 4.2.2. 'Study population').

- **Residents' destination brand ambassador behavior (BAB):**

Residents' active participation in the branding process (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). Can be reflected through offline and online Word-of-mouth, participation in brand related promotional events and activities, participation in future brand development, and personal use of brand promotional material.

- **Residents' destination brand attitude:**

Brand-centered, evaluative, affective and enduring concept (Baloglu, 1998; Eagle & Chaiken, 1993; Peter Paul & Olson, 2008, Spears & Singh, 2004). Long-lasting positive evaluation of the brand, not triggered by sensorial stimuli but rather by effortful thought.

- **Residents' destination brand self-congruity:**

Match between an individual's personal characteristics and the characteristics of the brand (Aaker, 1997; Caldwell & Freire, 2004). Higher levels of congruity are believed to create favorable brand attitudes and/or subsequent behavior.

- **Residents' destination brand psychological empowerment:**

An individual's feeling of being enabled (Corsun & Enz, 1999), not to be confused with actual participation. Conceptualized as knowledge of opportunities to possibly contribute to a brand, detached from effective contribution (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). This can be related to various aspects of a brand, such as merely feeling sufficiently aware of issues surrounding the branding process or the ability to vote in elections which will indirectly influence the brand through its outcomes (Propst & Jeong, 2012).

- **Residents' public trust in destination brand authorities:**

Positive attitude towards the branding authorities and the belief that they will perform adequately (Nguyen & Rose, 2009). Also related to the belief that there is no need to monitor the trustee constantly as he/she will most likely meet expectations (Kim, 2005).

- **Residents' place attachment:**

Bonding between an individual and his/her meaningful environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Usually refers to the bonding with physical dimensions, such as houses, neighborhoods or an entire country. Also includes attachment to the social environment, i.e. interpersonal relationships occurring within the place. Highly connected with how a place relates to an individual's identity (Brocato, 2006; Cooper Marcus, 1992).

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

FOREWORD

This chapter offers a detailed and analytical review of literature related to the core elements of this study, which are: destination branding and relevant definitions, as well as residents and their relationship to destination brands, with special emphasis on residents' destination BAB. This is followed by a discussion on the possible antecedents of this behavior. Antecedents will be identified based on a literature categorization according to the roles of residents in destination branding and the meticulous investigation of concepts relevant in these contexts. Furthermore, relationships among the identified related concepts will be critically elaborated and analyzed.

2.1. Destination branding

2.1.1. The brand: concept and definition

Although the concept of brand has appeared for centuries in product promotion and distinction (Gartner, 2009; Konečnik& Gartner, 2007) and the first academic literature on the topic emerged as early as in the 1940's (Pike, 2009), definitions of the term are still widely discussed (Költringer & Dickinger, 2015). In contemporary literature, the traditional concept of a brand being merely a promotional tool for standard products and services has been broadened to new input perspectives, such as the importance of internal stakeholders (de Chernatony, 1999), positive brand-related long term effects such as brand word of mouth and brand loyalty and ultimately, the consideration of new products to be branded, among which also tourist destinations (Kaplan et al., 2010). Consequently, it is widely accepted that a brand constitutes a 'powerful means of differentiation' (Boo, Busser, & Baloglu, 2009, p. 219) for a wide range of products and services, and this new found complexity is also reflected in modern definitions of the term. Recent studies have defined brand as being at the same time legal instrument, logo, company, identity system, image, personality, relationship and/or adding value (Konečnik & Gartner, 2007). Some researchers have gone so far as to define a brand as merely existing in the eyes of their beholders, giving it a notion of intangibility and subjectivity (e.g. Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Munar, 2009). As a logical consequence, these wide range of definitions have resulted in an array of confusion on how the term should be used and it is still believed that up to date there is no universally accepted definition of what finally constitutes a brand (Hankinson, 2001).

In spite of the uncertainty, this study has chosen a tangible definition of the term, following a trend in recent studies (e.g. Cai, 2009; Eshuis & Klijn, 2012; Kavaratzis, 2008; Pike & Ryan, 2004), namely 'A brand is a symbolic construct that consists of a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of these, created deliberately to identify a phenomenon and differentiate it from similar phenomena by adding particular meaning to it.' (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012, p. 19).

On the core of this definition lies the belief that a brand is inherently different from brand image, which is the previously mentioned concept of mental association with a certain product or service. As a symbolic construct meant to intentionally differentiate a phenomenon from others, a brand expresses certain core values in terms of identity through a combination of name, slogans and graphics (Cai et al., 2009). The definition has been chosen because it is believed that the destination brand, as a deliberate construct, is able to be freely manipulated and used as a key concept to successful destination marketing by a destination marketing organization (DMO) (Boo et al., 2009; Mohsin, 2005). In other words, the brand as a constructed concept lies on the core of every destination marketing campaign or effort, allowing a creative and consistent representation of the tourism product (Anholt, 2009). Although this implies that a brand as such is controllable and able to be manipulated, there is still a lack of research looking at the concept from a DMO perspective (Min, Martin, & Jung, 2011). This has caused a significant gap between interrelated literature and its application to practical destination branding (Nyilasy & Reid, 2007).

2.1.2. Place brand or destination brand?

The concept of branding products and services has existed for centuries. Nonetheless, its application to tourism products is relatively recent (Blain, Levi, & Ritchie, 2005; Hankinson, 2001; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011) and especially place brands are a fairly new development (Anholt, 2002; García, Gómez. & Molina, 2012; Gnoth, 1998; Pike, 2005; 2009). Nevertheless, with the first related academic papers appearing in the early 1990's, there has been a rapid growth of interest in the topic. Pike (2009) counts 74 publications by 102 authors related to place branding between 1998 and 2007. In spite of this, a wide range of scholars have agreed that there is still a lack of destination branding related literature (e.g. Boo et al., 2009; Dinnie, 2004; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Baloglu, 2007;

Gnoth, 2002; Hankinson, 2001; 2004; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011). In extremis, Cai (2002) goes as far as defining destination branding as a topic merely in its infancy.

A core issue in the lack of relevant research is constituted by the fact that there lies a persisting confusion in the differentiation of the terms 'place branding', 'destination branding', 'nation branding', 'country branding', and 'city branding' (Papadopoulos, 2004). What is clear is that all of the previous are considered as being similarly related to a geographical name or a place (Cai, 2002), more multidimensional than brands related to consumer goods (Pike, 2005), encompassing both tangible and intangible elements (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2007), and potentially beneficial for tourists and residents alike (Blain et al., 2005; Pike, 2009). Papadopoulos (2004, p. 36) gives a somehow general definition of the above, defining all of the mentioned brands as 'a broad set of efforts by a country, regional or city government and industry groups, aimed at marketing the places or sectors they represent'.

This concept is in line with the previously discussed definition of a brand as being as symbolic and intentional construct for product differentiation. Blain et al., (2005, p. 331) agree on the destination brand as being a tool for shaping the beholders' brand image, underlining the differences between the two concepts. They define a destination brand subsequently as a 'set of marking activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination: that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk. Collectively, these activities serve to create a destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice.' Although comprehensive, this definition shows a heavy tourist related focus and even if it underlines the difference between destination brand and image, it does not help in distinguishing and clarifying the diversity among the previously mentioned terms. This makes it clear that, similar to general branding literature, also the field of destination branding still lacks of a commonly accepted definition for the term brand (Zenker, 2011).

Literature suggests a primary distinction between the most widely used concepts, namely 'place brand' and 'destination brand', reflecting the different definitions of 'place' and 'destination' respectively. A place is commonly defined as 'a particular position, point, or area in space' (Oxford Dictionaries, 2013). As such, a place is not necessarily related to tourism or tourist activities. On the contrary, a destination, according to the UNWTO (2007, p. 1), is 'a physical space in which a tourist spends at least one overnight' and is shaped by 'physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, and images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness'. Destinations also include a number of stakeholders, most of the times together with a host community (UNWTO, 2007). It is also necessary for a destination to contain basic elements to attract tourists and to satisfy them on their arrival. While the definition of place can be used as synonymous with location (Oxford Dictionaries, 2013) and does not imply any particular related characteristics, a destination is necessarily connected to tourism and tourist activities. Nonetheless, a place can also include the previously mentioned tourism-related assets and can therefore be a destination. The same concept applies when talking about 'place brands' and 'destination brands'.

According to Anholt (2009), place brands are generally believed to be more holistic than destination brands, promoting not only leisure products associated with a location but also other sectors, such as work or study. Pike (2009) agrees, defining a place brand as encompassing a wide range of sectors such as public policy, export trade, economic development, and historical, sporting and cultural dimensions. This definition suggests a destination brand to be a relatively straightforward business, laying a heavy focus on the leisure attributes of a location in its representation (Anholt, 2009; Hankinson, 2001). Anyhow, recent studies have questioned this simplification and the subsequent clear distinction among those two concepts. Several scholars have suggested the need for encompassing a more holistic view into the field of destination branding in order to give a more competitive and complete overview of a destination's assets (e.g. Dinnie, 2004; Ekinci et al., 2007; Fan, 2006; Hankinson, 2005; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). In academia and in practice, this suggests that the distinction among destination and place branding is starting to blur, with one concept possibly encompassing the other.

The reason therefore lies in the same development as the reasons for the recent growth of interest in destination branding, namely an increasingly competitive tourism market (Anholt, 2009; Kaplan et al., 2010; Papadopoulos, 2004; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Limited time and money, as well as a world in which many places offer similar tourism products (Pike, 2005), have made it difficult for DMOs to gain competitive advantage as well as for tourists to choose their travel product. A more holistic definition of destination brand, encompassing also non-leisure related assets and attributes formerly associated with place brands only, is now widely acknowledged to be a possible tool for a competitive plus (Ekinci et al., 2007; Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009). Following the suggestions by the previously mentioned scholars, this research will therefore treat destination brand and place brand as synonymous concepts and as intentionally constructed phenomena. The destination brand chosen will consequently be synonymous with the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand and its visible manifestations in forms of signs, design, and name amongst others (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012).

In addition to the definition of the term, several other issues have been identified in literature related to both, academic research and the practical application of destination branding. The next section will look nearer into the most relevant problems and their implications for this study.

2.1.3. An overview of issues in contemporary destination branding

In addition to a persisting confusion regarding definitions, several other relevant issues related to destination branding have been identified in literature. A main problem lies in the previously mentioned lack of literature specific to the branding of locations and the subsequent adoption of product and corporate branding theories, which up to date are still widely used in the field (García et al., 2012). Destinations, anyhow, do have particular traits and characteristics which can hardly be found in other branded products. Among them is their high level of multidimensionality (Pike, 2005), the fact that they contain both products and services (Berry, 2000), and tangible as well as intangible elements (Cai, 2002; Florek, 2005). Several scholars have therefore raised the question if traditional branding theories are applicable to destinations (e.g. Konečnik & Gartner, 2007; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). A general concern is that the former do not consider several factors relevant to destination branding, such as geography, natural resources, local products, institutions, infrastructure, politics, as well as several traits associated with the residents of a location in terms of social, historic, and national identity and characteristics (Dinnie, 2004; Fan, 2006; Gnoth, 2002; Kaplan et al., 2010; Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009). Hankinson (2004) highlights the necessity to consider especially the later, because branding has shifted from traditional products to suddenly represent places, persons and ideologies, which are considered highly sensitive and complex in nature. Although all of the above criticisms to traditional branding theories are relevant, the impression is given that they often hinder the progress of destination branding as an academic subject, being more deconstructive than constructive in nature. Ultimately, the need of specific theories and persisting academic skepticism has resulted in the lack of a commonly accepted framework for destination branding (Hankinson, 2004; Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998). This is considered to be a persisting and central issue in the field.

Another frequently mentioned issue is related to the use of destination image as synonymous with destination brand (Cai, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002; Tasci, Garnter, & Cavusgil, 2007). As previously alluded, destination image is related to beliefs, ideas and impressions that an individual has of a destination

(Crompton, 1979). Not only does the interchangeable use of both concepts not pay sufficient attention to the complexity of a destination brand (Boo et al., 2009; Pike, 2009; Walmsley & Young, 1998), but also creates a very subjective and not easily controllable idea of the term (Hankinson, 2001). This eventually shapes an overly complex and inefficient concept of destination brand (Zenker, 2011), which ultimately fails to address relevant issues regarding its practical application. Cai (2002) subsequently argues that destination image should be considered only as a part of the destination brand itself, but confusion among the two concepts should be avoided in research.

It is believed that the persisting inadequacy of bridging destination brand related research and its practical application may be a cause for the limited success of the concept among practitioners. Although increasingly popular, there are still only a very few destination brands which are widely known to the public (Pike, 2009; Tasci & Kozak, 2006), a wide spectrum of practical challenges for DMOs persist and the destination branding process is highly complex.

Baker (2009) summarizes the destination branding procedure from the government perspective into a 7A model. On the core of this lies the fact that destination brands should ideally be built from the inside out, meaning to start from the center of the local community and other internal stakeholders. First (1), an assessment of the brand and audit have to be held. In this stage the DMO aims at understanding what the brand's place in the world is. Second (2), there is an analysis and advantage investigation. It is examined what the destination is known for. The third (3), is brand alignment. Relationships and networks for the brand are established. Fourth (4), is articulation. The

DMO investigates how the destination brand can be established verbally and visually. Fifth (5), is activation. In this stage the brand comes to life through an implementation strategy. Sixth (6), is concerned with adoption and attitude. Here the stakeholders have to be examined and how they can adopt or support the destination brand should be understood. Last (7), follow action and afterwards. This stage focuses on destination brand maintenance. The DMO is concerned with how a brand can be kept fresh and relevant. Throughout this process, DMO's should understand the costs of brand building, the capability of doing so, brand equity, and ultimately the related financial performance (Ind & Bjerke, 2007).

How fast the DMO can move itself through the 7A stages is highly dependent on the size of branded community (including residents), its state of development, the scope of the destination brand, politics, available budget, time, and ultimately the power authorities have to make decisions (Baker, 2009). Also, DMO's have to deal with several additional factors inherent to destination branding. Among those, the most commonly mentioned are persisting stereotypes about a destination, limited budgets, politics, economics, environmental disasters, a growing need for differentiation (Anholt, 2009; Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Cai, 2002; Gertner & Kotler, 2002; Gnoth, 2002; Gunn, 1988), resilience to change (Florek, 2005; Henderson, 2000), and limited control over tourist experiences (Hankinson, 2004).

Also, Hankinson (2004; 2005) points out the difficulty for DMOs in dealing with destination brand stakeholders. The ultimate goal of this process should be their approval and adoption of the brand strategy (Baker, 2009). The high number of internal and external stakeholders, as well as the complexity in communication, makes the branding process often more of a coordination exercise that just a traditional management activity. This research in particular will deal with a stakeholder related issue in tourism destination branding and therefore this specific concept needs to be further elaborated and analyzed.

2.1.4. Destination brand stakeholders

Stakeholders are usually defined as 'any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievements of the organizations objectives' (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). Common examples found in literature are persons, groups, employees, customers, neighborhoods, organizations, suppliers, governments, community members, and in the most extreme case, the natural environment (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997; Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Stakeholders are commonly believed to affect a firm’s performance (Freeman, 1984) in a way which goes beyond actors who are tied directly to the organization (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). Usually divided in two groups, 'primary' stakeholders are directly connected to the firm, while 'secondary' stakeholders are not (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 1984). While the former have been usually considered as being vital for survival, the later, although not essential, have attracted more and more attention, also because of the damage they can cause if not properly dealt with. Sheehan and Ritchie (2004) argue that some stakeholders will be naturally inclined towards supporting an organization, while others may be potentially threatening. Both, potential support and threat have caused the identification and management of stakeholders to become a crucial and widely discussed topic among academics and practitioners alike.

In the specific case of destination branding, Anholt (2009, p. 38) defines destination brand stakeholders as 'people who have an interest in the way in which the destination presents itself'. Based on this definition it is suggested to look beyond brand creators and officially employed ambassadors and spokespersons (Donald & Gammack, 2007) to include a wider range of actors such as employees of local organizations and residents of a destination (García et al., 2012; Hankinson, 2004). Stakeholder identification can thus be considered a crucial issue in the field of destination branding. Several attempts have been made in literature to identify related core stakeholders. In the context of planning, Jamal and Getz (1994) give an early overview of who they have identified as crucial stakeholder groups, namely the local government, public and tourism industry associations such as the chamber of commerce and regional authorities, resident organizations, social agencies, as well as special interest groups. A 2005 follow up study by Sheehan and Ritchie anyhow questiones the stability of these dimensions across different destinations and contexts, showing slightly different groupings by in-depth interviewing DMOs in different locations.

Other scholars (e.g. Konečnik & Go, 2008; Wagner, Peters, & Schuckert, 2009) identify a large number of destination brand stakeholders among which residents, hotels, transport, nature protection, trade industry, municipalities and ultimately the DMOs themselves. Being part of the brand reality, these stakeholders are not only target groups of the brand but also its direct representatives (Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Zenker, Knubben, & Beckmann, 2010). Dinnie (2008) argues in a similar fashion to Sheehan and Ritchie (2005), that not all of these brand stakeholders can be generalized across destinations, because their interest depends on the branding campaign which is being launched and the context in which the brand takes form. He states nevertheless, that the aim of a DMO should be to apply a fully-inclusive-stakeholder approach (FIST) to destination branding, which preferably includes the public sector, private sector and residents of the destination respectively (Dinnie, 2008).

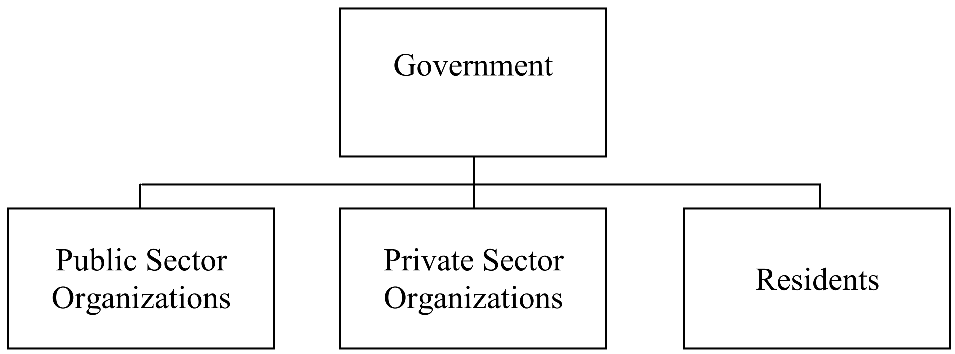

Figure 2.1. The FIST (fully-inclusive stakeholder approach)

(Source: adapted from Dinnie, 2008)

Although not living up to the complexity of other mentioned studies, the FIST gives an easy overview of the most relevant destination brand stakeholders (see Figure 2.1.). This is deemed of utter importance for both, academics and practitioners because the identification of stakeholders is still a major and persistent destination brand related issue (Anholt, 2009; Dinnie, 2008; Marzano & Scott, 2009). The main threat related to identifying destination brand stakeholders lies in the fact that, if overlooked, they might ignore or in the worst case sabotage a branding strategy, causing conflict and resistance (Braun et al., 2010, Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2011, Zenker et al., 2010). The high contextual factor which has to be considered when branding a destination does therefore request special attention from the responsible DMOs.

In addition to the difficulties related to identification, subsequent destination brand stakeholder management has been recognized as another relevant issue. Hankinson (2001) argues that due to the high number of stakeholders, the decision making process in destination branding is usually fragmented, with the need for more than one authority to be involved. This raises several challenges for DMOs, such as keeping control, coordinating all the stakeholders properly and ultimately, delivering a consistent brand message, ideally based on a shared vision (de Chernatony, 1999; Gertner & Kotler, 2004; Morgan et al., 2011; Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007; Papadopoulos, 2004). Especially the later is of utmost importance, because a shared vision creates the base of a destination brand, which subsequently lies on the core of the brand identity (Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Morgan et al., 2011). Destination brand identity is defined by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000, p. 43) as 'a set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or to maintain'. It can therefore be considered a major challenge for destination brand creators to develop an appropriate brand identity. Not only can it cause conflict among stakeholders if opinions on the core values diverge, but a brand which does not succeed in delivering a coherent message with strong values is most likely not to be perceived and remembered as distinctive by a consumer (Berry, 2000; de Chernatony, 1999; Hankinson, 2001; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Several scholars argue, in extremis, that if a destination fails to create a strong identity with the general public, the results may be that it is not perceived at all as a brand (Pike, 2005; Morgan et al., 2011).

Considering the high risk which the identification and management of destination brand stakeholders constitutes for the success of a brand, scholars argue that DMOs don't need only good management skills (Gnoth, 2002), but also an appropriate organizational structure to support them (Berry, 2000; Hankinson, 2001). Ideally, the later should be able to bridge different sectors such as technology, business and leisure under a shared vision (Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Papadopoulos, 2004). Morgan et al. (2011) also state that a DMO needs to look beyond a merely market driven focus to succeed in its stakeholder management, but on the other hand needs to be careful which stakeholders to involve in the branding process. It is therefore up to the management to judge which stakeholders can influence the DMOs objectives, maximize cooperation, minimize threats, and then to properly engage them in order to maximize benefits (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). More stakeholders are involved, bigger gets the risk of tensions to arise and inertia due to individual interests (Morgan et al., 2011). Henderson (2000) also argues that interests of stakeholder groups are dynamic, meaning that societies evolve and change over time. A destination brand needs thus also to be monitored once it is launched and to be updated if necessary.

While the mentioned issues remain still a major point of discussion, several scholars have proposed a managerial solution for DMOs when dealing with destination branding. While most decisions regarding destination brands are made from an autocratic perspective, literature has suggested to change the management structure to a m ore inclusive bottom-up approach (e.g. Anholt, 2009; García et al., 2012; Hankinson, 2004;

Kaplan et al., 2010; Pike, 2005; 2009). This would idealistically include a wider range of stakeholders and give them a saying in the destination branding process.

The largest and most fruitful of these stakeholders is commonly believed to be the residents of a destination (Kavaratzis, 2004). Nonetheless, in literature the biggest destination brand stakeholder seems also to be the most overlooked and least investigated one (Freire, 2009; Merrilees, Miller, Herington, & Smith, 2007; Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009). While in research they are referred to in many ways, among which 'residents' (e.g. Braun et al., 2010, Nicholas, Thapa, & Ko, 2009), 'host community' (e.g. Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Konečnik & Go, 2008), and 'local people' (e.g. Freire, 2009; García et al., 2012), this research will generally make use of the term residents and use all the other terms as synonymous. The next chapter will investigate the subject closer and review literature related to residents and destination branding.

2.2. Residents and destination branding

2.2.1. Overview and state-of-art

Most of the studies concerning the residents of a tourism destination originate in the investigation of their perceived tourism related impacts and subsequent behavior (e.g. Akis, Peristanis, & Warner, 1996; Ap & Crompton, 1993; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Doxey, 1975; Lindberg & Johnson, 1997; Pizam, 1978). Although there has been early literature alluding to the possibility of involving residents in a pro-active way in tourism planning (e.g. Lankford & Howard, 1993; Macbeth, 1996; Sternquist Witter, 1985), up to date the focus on impacts and attitudes remains central in resident related research throughout the field of tourism (Merrilees et al., 2007; Murphy & Murphy, 2004).

Especially literature concerning residents within the field of destination branding is considered to be scarce at its best (Braun et al., 2013; Choo, Park, & Petrick, 2011; Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Pike & Scott, 2009) and empirical investigation is almost entirely missing (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Merrilees et al., 2009). While all through related research there seems to be only 'little understanding of the extent to which place brand management is a collective activity embraced by residents and smaller trade operators' (Morgan et al., 2003, p. 297), the same issue persists in the industry. Braun et al. (2010) mention the consideration of residents as a main unresolved problem within the field of destination branding in both, theory and practice.

In literature, although only indirectly related to destination branding, Schroeder (1996) makes an early attempt to look beyond the traditional residents' perception of visitors and the tourism business. In the context of North Dakota, he relates the local support for tourism development and the possibility of residents acting as destination ambassadors to the perceived image they have of their home destination. Unfortunately, this study is more concerned with destination image than with the brand as a deliberate construct. As mentioned earlier, this makes practical implications for a DMO extremely difficult. A more tangible result is given by Henderson (2000), when investigating both, the residents' and tourists' awareness related to the Singaporean 'New Asia' destination brand. Contrary to Schroeder (1996), Henderson (2000) focuses on the brand as a destination marketing tool, which is a definition adopted also by this research. Although the results suggest that it is important to consult and involve residents in the destination branding process and other contemporary scholars agree on this fact (e.g. Holcomb, 1999), there has not been much empirical follow up in literature. A possible reason therefore might be the severe criticism that a call for a more inclusive approach to destination branding has faced. Blichfeldt (2005) highlights that residents' as a destination brand stakeholder cannot be considered as being directly manageable. Although they are important for a destination brand, the focus of a DMO should persist on the customers, which in this specific case are mainly tourists. Further criticism from Riezebos (2007) follows the same line of thought. With a quantity of overstatement, he adds that democracy and a coherent city brand image cannot coexist, meaning that a top-down approach is the only effective way to implement an effective destination brand.

Only recently, the interest in residents as a destination brand stakeholder has gained a more empirical, although still limited attention in literature. The reason therefore is believed to be found in the separation of two traditional destination related research streams, namely the interest in socio-cultural and, on the other hand, business-related issues (Framke, 2002). Early destination branding literature related to residents does mostly consider the topic as being socio-culturally driven, with DMOs pictured as conforming 'to market demands, not residents' dreams' (Holcomb, 1999, p. 69). This is a possible cause for the current divide between academia and the more market driven practical world of destination branding. Just in recent times, literature shows that residents do not constitute only an ethical, social and political responsibility for a DMO, but also a valuable source of potential for the development and implementation of a destination brand. Therein emerge discussions related to residents' potential for destination brand engagement (e.g. Kalandides, 2012; Merrilees et al., 2007; Pike & Scott, 2009), participation (e.g. Propst & Jeong, 2012), enhancement (e.g. Dinnie & Fola, 2009; Freire, 2009), rejuvenation (Wagner et al., 2009), and a range of other positive brand related behavior (e.g. Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo & Park, 2009; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). Accordingly, Pike (2009) identifies residents' involvement in the destination branding process as one of the nine critical points related to the success of a destination brand. Although academic interest in the topic has considerably grown during the last years, most of the studies found in contemporary literature still fail to empirically unite both, socio-cultural and business related implications.

In a rare attempt to give an overview of the matter, Braun et al., (2010; 2013) present a clear, although very basic and merely descriptive, summary of the relationship between residents and a destination brand by conceptualizing the roles they play in the branding process and brand implementation (see Figure 2.2.). The first (1), views residents as a target of the destination brand, the second (2) alludes to their integration within the product, the third (3) considers the democratic legitimacy of the branding process and the fourth (4) mentions their role as potential 'brand evangelists'. In s more recent elaboration of the study (Braun et al., 2013), the number of roles is reduced to three, mentioning target group merely as a segmentation tool. Braun et al. (2013, p.9) suggest that DMOs should understand the roles of the residents in the branding process and realize that 'the investment needed for such an approach is not investment in communicating the place brand, but investment in its antecedents: it is an investment in sharing the meaning of the place brand, alongside its ownership and control.'

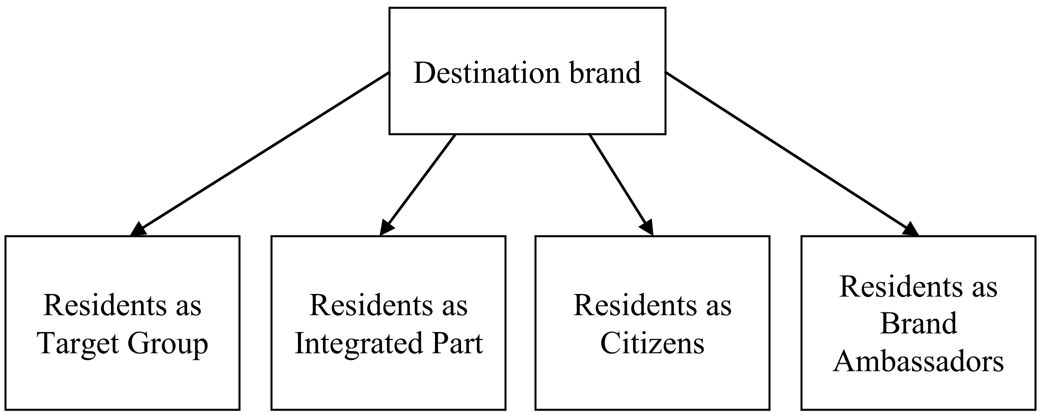

Figure 2.2. The roles of residents in destination branding

(Source: adapted from Braun et al., 2010; 2013)

Unfortunately, their study does not test any of these roles empirically and does not explain how they relate to each other. Braun et al. (2013) anyhow express the need for the development of an effective measurement, which can facilitate a final evaluation and practical application of these roles. Both, the socio-cultural and economic implications of residents and destination brands are covered, while the ambassador role aspires to enhance the potential of a destination brand economically. The target group and integrated role seem to be driven by both of the former implications.

Nonetheless, hitherto there has been no e mpirical attempt to elaborate and empirically test the relationship among these four roles. This still persistent lack of related research and a subsequent framework is believed to have caused the scarce applicability and persistent difficulties for DMOs in dealing with the topic in practice. In the words of Cai (2009, p. 93), 'misunderstandings and wrong applications of destination branding by DMOs will persist, unless the study and practice of branding for community destinations are founded on a theoretical framework'. It is therefore in the interest of this research to further investigate and elaborate this topic. Based on the roles identified by Braun et al., (2010; 2013), the subsequent section will group and analyze relevant literature according to the relationship among residents, destination brands and the responsible DMOs, in order to identify and analyze relevant concepts.

2.2.2. Residents as a destination brand target group: Cold versus warm marketing

When speaking about residents as being a target group for destination brands, two streams of research can be identified in literature, namely an internal and an external focus (see Figure 2.3.). Zenker and Seigis (2012, p.22) summarize both, by stating that 'residents are simultaneously vital participants and the most important audience of the place marketing process'.

An external focus is typically found in more traditional frameworks related to destination branding (e.g. Kotler, Asplund, Rein, & Haider, 1999; Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993; Kotler, Hamlin, Rein, & Haider, 2002). In these studies, residents are not actually the people already living the destination, but rather a target group which should be convinced to get into a certain relationship with a place. Hospers (2010) calls this external focus 'cold' marketing. A Classic example therefore is the targeting of potential domestic tourists (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). In addition to tourists, there are also other external segments. The idea of a so-called 'creative class' (Florida, 2012;

Zenker, 2009) has emerged in both, literature and practical branding. A destination brand is for that reason meant to target also 'new residents' (Kotler et al., 2002), meaning qualified labor and their families, in order to stimulate their settling in the destination. In addition to the tourism benefits, a destination brand is so also believed capable of being an economic driver for local development. By targeting a certain restricted segment of potential residents, other groups can be discouraged to move to a destination. In the words of Kotler et al. (2002, p. 385) , a destination brand can be meant to put off immigration from 'low-income families, the unemployed, the homeless and certain immigrants'.

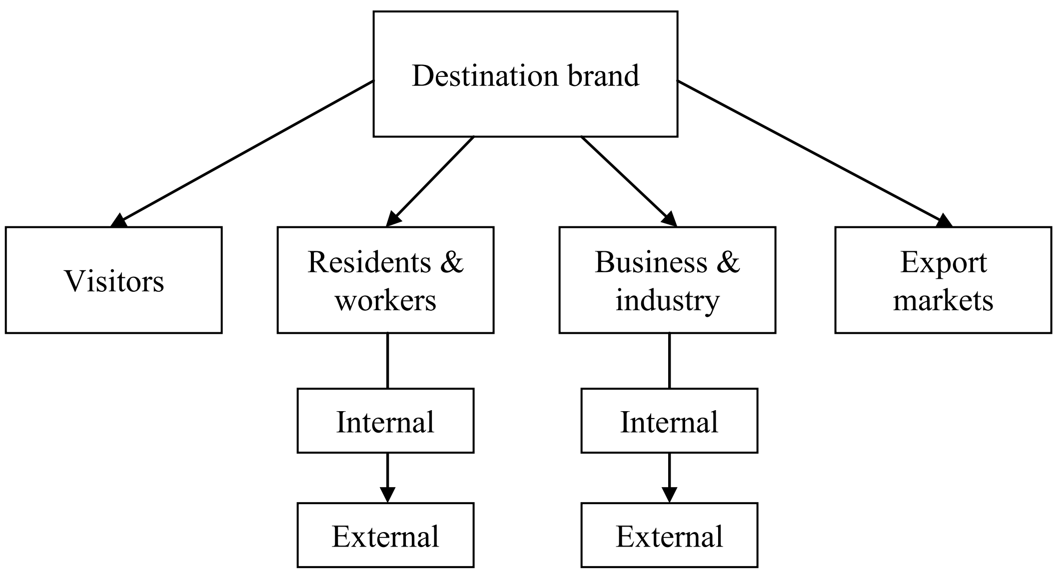

Figure 2.3. Target groups for destination branding

(Source: adapted from Zenker, 2009; Zenker et al., 2010)

Understandingly, this focus has faced severe criticism in recent literature. Braun et al. (2010), highlight that a strong external focus of a destination brand frequently fails to acknowledge the residents as being already citizens of a destination. This eventually creates confusion among residents, workers and employees, ignoring socio-cultural responsibilities for pure economic benefit. Zavattaro (2012, p. 214) states that residents as an external target group are placed in a 'passive, non-dialogic relationship that rely on picking or choosing, rather than critiquing or engaging with, municipal entities'. In addition to criticism from the academic field, there have been practical examples of destination branding underlining the risk factor of a strong external focus. 'Marke Hamburg', the rebranding of the German city of Hamburg, is a notorious case related to this issue. The local DMO decided to reproduce a strong stereotypical image of the city in order to target the creative class by focusing on values such as 'rich' and 'creative' (Braun et al., 2010; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). This brand identity was not chosen with the consent of the residents, but rather based on brand values such as 'quality of life' and 'good for business' found in more traditional frameworks (e.g. Kotler et al., 2002).

The strong external focus of the brand ultimately unleashed massive public indignation and protests by the residents as they did not feel connected to the brand (Zenker & Petersen, 2010), as well as the creation of the still persistent counter-branding campaign 'Not in our Name' (Braun et al., 2010). Braun et al. (2013) mention other infamous examples of residents' non-official branding initiatives, such as 'I AMsterdamned' and the case of Manchester's 'We are Up and Going' brand, which ultimately was forced to demise by a group of students, artists and entrepreneurs due to its poor perceived reflection of the city's people. While these and other examples of counter-branding show the dangers of a strong external focus on the 'residents' of a destination brand, related academic literature and subsequent empirical investigation is highly limited.

This research, being focused on the residents already living in the destination, chooses not to consider them as an external but rather as an internal target group. While the goal of an external focus on the residents is to attract them to a destination, the internal method of targeting them considers them as already living in the designated place. This is called 'warm' marketing (Hospers, 2010). Subsequently, the goal of the destination brand is seen from an utterly different focus. Because the residents, which are already citizens of a destination, don't need to be moved, the main goal is to make them feel supportive and make them give a positive response to the destination brand (Braun et al., 2010). In other words, for a destination brand to be successful, residents need to 'buy the brand' (Bennett & Savani, 2003, p. 82) . The reason therefore is twofold. First, public dismay and counter-branding campaigns, which are very counterproductive for the goals of a DMO, can be avoided. Second, residents showing a positive attitude towards the brand are more likely to feel a personal connection to it (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). Ultimately, this is expected to cause supportive brand-related behavior (Braun et al., 2010; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). As it is in the interest of this research to investigate residents' destination BAB and its possible antecedents, residents will be considered as an internal target group of the destination brand. Creative class and domestic tourists will as a result not be included in their definition. Subsequently, residents will be defined as 'permanent residents of the Hong Kong SAR'. Although related literature is particularly scarce, several authors have suggested that supportive attitude and subsequent ambassador behavior towards a destination brand are the main goal of targeting residents with an internal focus (e.g. Kemp, Childers, & Williams, 2012; Kemp, Williams, & Bordelon, 2012; Merrilees et al., 2007; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008).

This study will as a result consider residents' destination brand attitude as an antecedent of residents' destination BAB and investigate the concept further. In order to guarantee a positive brand attitude, it is suggested that a DMO has to consider other relationships among residents and a destination brand, namely residents as part of the branded product and residents as living in the designated destination (Braun et al., 2010). Consequently, the next sections will group and analyze literature regarding both of these topics.

2.2.3. Residents as part of the branded product

Contrary to traditional product brands, destination brands also brand cultures, places, and ultimately people (Hankinson, 2004). In particular for a tourism product, residents lay on the core of a brand's identity. Braun et al., (2010, p.1) define them as the 'bread and butter of places', underlining the necessity for a DMO to pay attention on how they are presented and represented within the destination brand.

There are two main streams of research in literature dealing with the residents as being a part of the destination product. The first includes them as a direct part of the destination brand promise (Freire, 2009) and is therefore focused on the perception from a tourists' perspective. This means that residents are seen as a substantial 'attraction' of a destination and therefore need to be appropriately promoted. Indeed, several scholars have highlighted the importance that residents have in shaping the tourist experience in every stage of the visit (e.g. Carmichael, 2006; Ekinci et al., 2007; Henderson, 2000; Tasci & Kozak, 2006). As part of the product, residents are believed to have a direct influence on the visiting as well as post-visit experience. Furthermore, destinations often get stereotyped by its inhabitants, which make them also an important asset for pre-visit intentions. Konečnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony (2012) underline how a good branding effort can highlight residents as a unique destination asset and create a possible advantage in the highly competitive tourism market.

Other research has shown the risks of this same process. First, a brand is generally considered to be a promise, and as such a promise should be kept in order to please tourists. The heterogeneity and unpredictability of the residents as part of the branded product makes this a major challenge for a DMO (Gnoth, 2002; Hankinson, 2001). Gnoth (2002) underlines first that, if the visitor experience does not follow up w hat the destination brand has promised, there is a high risk for a low level of tourist satisfaction. Second, unlike corporate brands, destinations brand residents are not paid employees. Even if not satisfied with the destination, residents do typically not have the resources to move to another place (Hospers, 2010). While residents as part of the product technically live the brand (Ekinci et al., 2007; Henderson, 2000), they are not paid to adapt to the brand promise, as it is the case for corporation employees (Choo et al., 2011; Mitchell, 2002). This makes them a unique stakeholder for a destination brand and limits the applicability of corporate branding theories. Because destinations are unable to be engineered or manufactured (Braun et al., 2010; Henderson, 2000), a DMO needs to pay utmost attention to local customs and history when developing a destination brand (Florek, 2005). This thought leads to the second stream, concerned with residents as part of the branded product.

The second branch of literature deals with the residents' perception of how they are represented within a destination brand. The very core of a destination brand's identity is believed to be not related to a material unchanging world only, but also to the people which lie on its foundations (Weichhart, Weiske, & Werlen, 2006). Several scholars have underlined the importance that the representation of such an identity takes in a continuously globalizing world. In the case of Amsterdam, Hospers (2010) underlines the significance of the citizen representation as inhabitants of Amsterdam rather than as being merely Dutch, due to their distinct identity within the country.

In other cases too, people are greatly affected by this very same issue (Hospers, 2010). Konečnik and Go (2008) emphasize the fact that due to increasing global homogeneity in terms of culture, the representation of residents within a brand has become a more and more emotional issue. Especially in the case of smaller countries such as Slovenia (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a), cultural traits and identity play a crucial role. Most residents feel that the way they are represented within a destination brand will consequently be the way they will be judged by the outside world (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a). Represented community values should therefore be based on the residents' sense of pride and self-concept (van't Klooster, Go, &van Baalen, 2003; Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2003; Wheeler, Frost, & Weiler, 2011; Zenker & Petersen, 2010), as well as on the feeling of local identity and self-esteem (Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009). If these criteria's are met and the residents feel properly represented by a destination brand, positive attitudes towards the brand will be likely (Zenker & Petersen, 2010).

Recalling the failure of invoking a similar positive residents' attitude with the new brand of Hamburg (Braun et al., 2010; Zenker & Petersen, 2010), literature has shown also other examples of identity related destination brand issues. Eshuis and Edelenbos (2009, p. 277) recall the recent case of the Dutch city of Katendrecht, where residents expressed their aversion to being represented by 'beautiful plans which promised the world', rather than as congruent to their own perceived identity. This congruity failure has again caused public outrage and dismay (Eshuis & Edelenbos, 2009). Other examples for residents' discontent with their representation within a brand have been found in recent studies, highlighting negative consequences such as counter-branding efforts (Braun et al., 2010), media criticism (Szondi, 2007) and public indignation and disappointment (Fan, 2006).

Although within these studies the congruity among the represented and the perceived self-image has been alluded to as an antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude, empirical evidence on this topic is still missing (Zenker & Petersen, 2010). On the basis of this literature, this study will consequently consider residents' destination brand self-congruity as a possible antecedent of destination brand attitude.

2.2.4. Residents as co-owners of a destination brand

When speaking about residents as co-owners of a destination brand, most literature refers to output legitimacy and subsequent perceived co-ownership of their very own brand (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). Although these are two separate concepts, both of the former are related.

When speaking about the DMO's output legitimacy related to the destination brand, a recurrent issue is residents' involvement in the branding process. Dinnie (2008) states that in a normal case destination brands are funded by tax money or other contributions from the public sector, which are indirectly paid by the residents. To guarantee a more legit destination brand, residents should be consulted, if not directly involved, in the creation and implementation of such a project. In most societies, people feel easily excluded or marginalized from the decision making processes of their responsible authorities, and this is especially the case when speaking about a destination brand (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). Bennett and Savani (2003, p. 80) mention a Danish interviewee as stating: 'If you don't have the residents on board you'll never change an area's image. The local people need something they can identify with, even if the World around them – I mean *their* World – is collapsing'. In other words, only residents which feel sufficiently empowered by their authorities will show a more positive brand related attitude.

As mentioned earlier regarding negligence in their representation within the brand, the lack of perceived empowerment in the brand creation and implementation can have similar negative effects in terms of residents' outrage and resistance in claiming residents' rights to be heard and to participate in decision-making (Bennett & Savani, 2003; Braun et al., 2010; Fan, 2006; Kavaratzis, 2004; Zenker & Seigis, 2012). When speaking about legitimacy related to destination branding, literature is typically concerned with a call for democracy, legality, bottom-up participation, and transparency as a duty for DMOs (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Riezebos, 2007). In other words, residents should be consulted during the branding process, mainly due to socio-cultural and ethical reasons rather than as a catalyst for economic benefits.

While related literature is mostly conceptual and still limited in numbers, also in practice destinations which effectively include residents in their branding process are still scant (Dinnie, 2008). Nevertheless, due to the previously mentioned negative effects on residents' brand attitudes and subsequent hard consequences for the success of a destination brand, more and more DMOs are considering an integrated approach in this respect (Kalandides, 2012a). However, although growing more popular in practice, residents' involvement in the destination branding process still remains widely under-researched in academic circles (Braun et al., 2010; Park et al., 2009).

Eshuis and Edwards (2012) introduce an important consequence of residents' empowerment, namely feelings of co-ownership of the brand which ultimately can make people feel to be respected as citizens (Zenker & Seigis, 2012). If residents sense that the destination brand partially belongs to them, they will be more inclined to show not only a more positive attitude towards it, but subsequently 'feel the commitment to the brand that comes with the notion of ownership' (Eshuis & Edwards, p. 16) . Not only will they therefore have a positive attitude towards the brand, but if they perceive themselves as sufficiently empowered to collaborate, they might be more inclined to transmit the attractiveness and interest of the brand (García et al., 2012). This suggests residents' perceived destination brand empowerment as an antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude and possible destination BAB.

While residents' effective participation in the destination branding process has been suggested as a possible enhancement of the consistency of a brand message due to first-hand input (e.g. Berry, 2000; de Chernatony, 1999; Hankinson, 2001), other researchers have argued that the feeling of being able to participate in the branding process is crucial (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). It is therefore deemed necessary to distinguish among perceived empowerment and effective participation.

The concept of residents' empowerment is considered closely related to the notion of trust in government institutions (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). In other words, residents do not only feel the need to be considered in the brand development and implementation, but also need to believe the branding authorities are acting properly and beneficially for them and the destination. According to Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011), DMOs need to target residents' with effective internal branding campaigns if public trust is lacking. Residents who trust in the responsible DMO will be more likely to show positive brand related behavior, especially in terms of cooperation with the authorities (Hwang & Willem, 1997). It is therefore believed that residents as co-owners of the brand don't need to feel only sufficiently empowered, but also require to show public trust towards the branding authorities.

Because past studies have shown that perceived empowerment influences the residents' perception of their brand, as well as behavior (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Propst & Jeong, 2012) and residents' support is believed to be closely related to public trust (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012), this research will consider perceived empowerment and public trust as possible antecedents of residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB.

2.2.5. Residents as destination brand ambassadors

The goal of aiming at residents as an external destination brand target group is to encourage or discourage certain segments of society to visit or move to a designated destination, also called 'cold' city marketing (Hospers, 2010). As this study considers the residents as an internal target group based on 'warm' city marketing (Hospers, 2010), this concept does not apply. As a consequence, the DMOs goal has been identified as causing positive resident attitudes towards a destination brand (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Zenker & Petersen, 2010), and ultimately to transform them into destination brand ambassadors (Braun et al., 2010; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo et al., 2011; Freire, 2009; Kavaratzis, 2005; Propst & Jeong, 2012). In a rare case of interest, Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a, p. 469) offer a singular and fairly direct definition of BAB concept, which will be used also for this research, namely 'Residents can be treated as an internal stakeholder of the country, as this is the largest group that constitutes and lives the brand. Their active participation in the process of formation and especially in the process of brand implementation is precious. In this way, they act as ambassadors of the country brand.'

On the core of this idea lies the thought that residents can enhance the equity of a destination brand through positive brand related behavior. Kavaratzis (2004) states that there are three ways to communicate a destination brand. The first (1), is by primary means, namely through real place offerings such as architecture. The second (2), is through secondary marketing efforts by the DMO. The last (3), is through tertiary means. These include not directly controllable ways of communication, such as word of mouth. In the later, residents play a particular role because they are both, 'at the same time the most important target audience of city branding and the most important city marketers' (Kavaratzis, 2004, p. 69). If done intentionally or unintentionally (Chen & Dwyer, 2010), these actions are potentially cost-effective (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008), reach targets better than traditional advertisements, and ultimately appear as the least biased and most authentic form of branding (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Braun et al., 2010; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). Andersson and Ekman (2009) state that DMOs have recognized this potential and there are several practical examples of organized ambassador platforms and networks for residents. Braun et al. (2013, p.3) mention the 'Be Berlin' branding campaign as a successful case in point, because residents could 'express their views on their city through the telling of personal stories that connected them to the city; some of these personal stories have been used in the city's promotional campaign'. Cai (2002) had suggested earlier that BAB can be summarized as an effective tool to build a stronger destination brand identity. Later studies reinforce this idea by the fact that modern tourists do not want to be only involved with sightseeing, but look for an emotional link and a deeper contact to the local culture, which finally exposes them more to the residents (Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007). On the same line, Gowreesunkar, Cooper and Durbarry (2009) state that in modern tourism residents deliver the brand promise made by the DMO through their behavior when they effectively meet the guest.

Nonetheless, this kind of effective residents' support for the promotion of their own destination brand has up to date hardly been investigated (Choo & Park, 2009). Braun et al. (2013, p. 7) mention the importance to connect residents' BAB to their roles of being citizens, target group and integrated part: 'Getting it r ight is no easy task, however, especially if policy makers do not see the relationship between this ambassador role and the other roles discussed. In other words, satisfied residents may become the most valuable ambassadors for their place, but dissatisfied residents will almost certainly become ambassadors against their place.'

Although the concept appears in earlier studies, a first empirical evidence for residents acting as destination brand ambassadors is given by Schroeder (1996). Accordingly, a positive destination image and awareness about the destination are able to lead residents to both, supporting and promoting behavior. Ultimately this is believed to 'impact both the organic and induced image that nonresidents have' (Schroeder, 1996, p. 73). As mentioned earlier, his study does in any case not consider the brand as a deliberate construct and therefore relates the causes of BAB more to a general context than to the marketing efforts of a DMO.

Since then, several studies have mentioned the importance of residents' support and involvement in tourism planning (e.g. Dinnie & Fola, 2009; Nicholas et al., 2009; Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007), but do not succeed in connecting this behavior to the branding efforts of a DMO. Only recently, some studies have made this connection (e.g. Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Kemp, Williams et al., 2012; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; Propst & Jeong, 2012; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013; Scott & Clark, 2006) and although limited in number, have shown various related empirical evidence.

For this study, it is therefore deemed as necessary to analyze how residents' destination BAB has been used in literature, what might be possible related antecedents, and ultimately, how it BAB be defined for this research. An overview of the topic will make it possible to create an effective and realistic concept, which can be used in resident-related branding research. The next section will deal with this subject in detail.

2.3. Conceptualization of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior

Although several scholars have literally mentioned residents' destination BAB (e.g. Braun et al., 2010; Propst & Jeong, 2012), there is no unique sound definition for the concept found in current literature and research on t he topic is generally scarce (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). While there are several empirical studies related to the subject starting from Schroeder (1996), there is not much coherence in how the concept has been used in past research. Looking at studies which have been concerned with the subject, several reflections of BAB have been identified (see Table 2.1.).

Table 2.1. Overview of residents' destination brand ambassador related studies

Year	Author	Suggested Antecedents	Type of study	Type of brand ambassador behavior
1996	Schroeder	Image, awareness	Empirical	Support for tourism development, recommendation

Year	Author	Suggested Antecedents	Type of study	Type of brand ambassador behavior
2006	Scott & Clark	Involvement, brand evaluation	Empirical	WOM
2007	Merrilees et al.	Brand attitude	Empirical	Use of tourist facilities
2008	Simpson & Siguaw	Satisfaction, identity salience	Empirical	WOM
2009	Andersson & Ekman	Access to information, benefits	Empirical	WOM, brand development
2009	Gowreesunkar et al.	Awareness	Empirical	Influence tourists' experience
2009	Pike & Scott	Brand loyalty, quality, associations, salience	Empirical	WOM, participation, loyalty to local attractions
2009	Choo & Park	Brand identification	Empirical	WOM, activities for visitor satisfaction, participation
2010	Braun et al.	Involvement, shared brand vision	Conceptual	WOM, positive brand related behavior
2010	Chen & Dwyer	Place brand communication, satisfaction, place attachment	Empirical	WOM, participation, in-role citizenship behavior, retention
2010	Zenker & Petersen	Identification	Conceptual	Intention to leave/stay, citizen behavior, WOM
2011	Choo et al.	Brand identification	Empirical	WOM, activities for visitor satisfaction, participation
2012a	Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek	Brand identification, brand recognition	Empirical	Brand development, brand promotion
2012	Kemp, Childers et al.	Brand attitude, perceived quality, brand uniqueness, self-brand connection	Empirical	Brand advocacy, WOM
2012	Kemp, Williams et al.	Brand attitude, perceived quality, brand commitment, self-brand connection	Empirical	WOM
2012	Eshuis & Edwards	Involvement, participation	Empirical	Brand commitment
2012	Propst & Jeong	Involvement, empowerment	Empirical	WOM, active participation

Year	Author	Suggested Antecedents	Type of study	Type of brand ambassador behavior
2013	Rehmet & Dinnie	Altruism, benefits	Empirical	Participation

As a result, three core distinctions within the studies of residents' destination BAB have been identified in literature, namely (1) planned versus spontaneous behavior, (2) promotion versus development related behavior, and (3) brand as a symbolic construct versus destination image. The following section will explain these concepts more in-depth an identify reflections of residents' destination BAB relevant for this specific research.

2.3.1. Planned versus spontaneous residents' destination brand ambassador behavior

A first general distinction which has been found, is between planned and spontaneous residents' destination BAB. The first considers the behavior as planned, i.e. channeled over appropriate platforms and networks provided by a DMO and therefore as directly stimulated by branding authorities. The second deals with spontaneous and highly informal BAB, such as first-hand word of mouth or other not directly triggered brand-related behavior.

Regarding planned destination BAB, Andersson and Ekman (2009) succeed in giving an overview of different purposely-appointed ambassador typologies for a destination brand. There are four main dimensions and four identified types of destination brand ambassadors. The first (1) dimension is split into 'local' and 'external'. While local networks usually promote local pride and commitment, external networks focus on communication with other networks outside of the given destination. The second (2) dimension is divided into 'inclusive' and 'exclusive' networks. The first has a wide target group, targeting also private people with the aim to extend the reach of the brand. Exclusive networks, on the other hand, aim at invited members, creating a more intimate atmosphere and are more effective for scarce resources. The third (3) dimension explains that both of the former dimensions are not mutually exclusive and networks can be 'multi-dimensional', including both of the previous. Finally, the last (4) dimension deals with the number of destination brand ambassadors. Larger networks are more effective, but also more costly and difficult to manage (Andersson & Ekman, 2009).

Andersson and Ekman (2009) also identify four types of destination brand ambassador networks (see Figure 2.4.). The first (1) is resident-oriented. Appealing to the pride and commitment of the citizens, it is the norm that everybody is allowed to represent the destination through these network typologies. The second (2) network is business oriented. Invited members, usually restricted in numbers, mainly aim at attracting investment and business opportunities for a destination. The third (3) is focused on well-known and famous people. Normally these kind of ambassadors are expected to enhance the destination image, and generally to create awareness about the brand. Finally, the last (4) type of network is a niche one. An example therefore can be academic networks, trying to attract conferences and events (Andersson & Ekman, 2009).

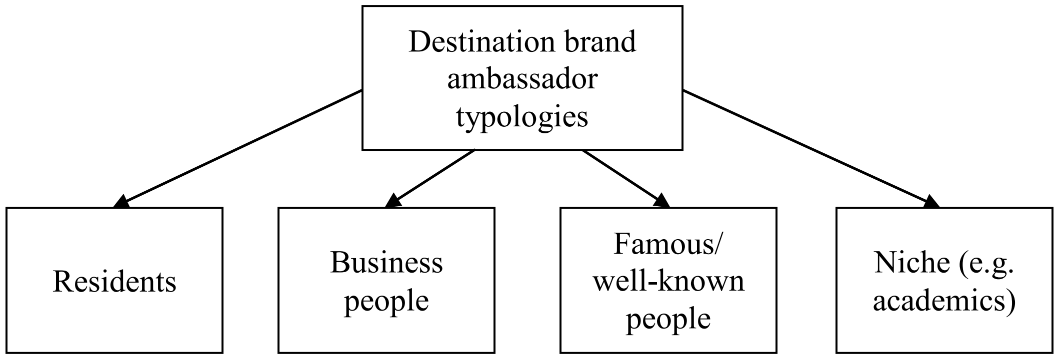

Figure 2.4. Destination brand ambassador typologies

(Source: adapted from Andersson & Ekman, 2009)

Although helpful in defining residents as destination brand ambassadors, Andersson and Ekman (2009) entirely approach the concept from an organized network point of view and do not consider spontaneous informal brand related behavior in a private context. From the same planned perspective, Propst & Jeong (2012) propose the creation of a 'brand ambassador program' for the 'New Michigan' brand. With the help of this network, residents would be able to be 'ambassadors to represent Pure Michigan in public events, organize and participate in the campaign’s promotional activities, and express citizens’ opinions or concerns to the campaign agency' (Propst & Jeong, 2012, p. 31). On the same line, Rehmet and Dinnie (2013) conduct a qualitative case study in order to determine motivations and perceived effects of Berlin residents participating in the ‘Be Berlin’ city brand ambassador program. Contrary to Anderson and Ekman’s (2009) previous study, this case actually takes the perspective of the residents. Altruistic motivations, such as social values and civic pride, were found significant, as well as benefit-driven motivations such as personal and business advantages (Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013). Nonetheless, the limited number of 10 respondents and the selection of residents which were already enrolled in the program, question the applicability of the results for the case of Hong Kong.

Although used in practice and widely manageable by a DMO (see Chapter 1), these ambassador networks do not have the advantage of seeming as unbiased and informal as spontaneous brand related communication and would fall more into the secondary brand communication category (Kavaratzis, 2004).

Regarding spontaneous BAB, literature has suggested that residents' have a particular importance in promoting a destination brand through unorganized communication, such as first-hand word of mouth (e.g. Braun et al., 2010; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Pike & Scott, 2009; Scott & Clark, 2006; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). Because this initiative is not directly managed by the branding authorities, spontaneous residents' destination BAB is likely to seem more unbiased and unorganized than its planned counterpart.

Because the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand is currently connected to organized networks of promotion such as 'Faces of Hong Kong' (see Chapter 1), but also spontaneous BAB is deemed as important for the success of a destination brand, this research will consequently consider both, planned and spontaneous residents' destination BAB as relevant reflections of the concept.

2.3.2. Promotion versus development related residents' destination brand ambassador behavior

Another twofold distinction among different types of residents' destination BAB is found in literature, namely promotion related and development related behavior. In its most simple, the first can be described a communication possibility for the destination brand while the later is a valuable resource for further destination brand improvement (Andersson & Ekman, 2009).

When speaking of promotion related residents' destination BAB, the most frequently mentioned in relevant literature is unquestionably brand word of mouth (WOM). Generally defined as a 'positive, informal and non-commercial person-to-person communication between two parties' (Mazzaro et al., 2007, p. 1483) , WOM is widely recognized as an effective tool to spread information about an object of interest (Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005) and has been deemed as the ultimate success for promotion efforts (Day, 1971). Contrary to planned marketing campaigns, WOM is usually transmitted in a familiar environment or atmosphere (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008) and is therefore a good alternative to controlled brand communications (Chen & Dwyer, 2010). Recalling the notion of planned BAB, WOM has been shown to be spread over organized ambassador networks, such as ambassador programs or in an online context (e.g. Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Propst & Jeong, 2012). While traditional WOM is believed to be an effective tool due to the high level of confidence among sender and receiver (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Hogan, Lemon, & Libai, 2004), ambassador networks create a more distant atmosphere, but are still able to seem relatively unbiased and not interested in profit (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Braun et al., 2010; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). According to Andersson & Ekman (2009), ambassador networks can in addition extend WOM to a larger audience than traditional communication.

Braun et al. (2013, p.10) additionally mention that 'the online world also provides enhanced opportunities for place marketers to engage with all stakeholders and form essential relationships with them', suggesting the importance of online word of mouth (eWOM). Although regularly overlooked in residents’ destination BAB related research (Choo et al., 2011), scholars have acknowledged WOM and eWOM’s enormous importance in the tourism context, due to the high level of intangibility of destination brands (Mazzarol, Sweeney, & Soutar, 2007). In this specific case of interest, it has been suggested that residents are able to act as verbal ambassadors to both, internal and external stakeholders (e.g. Braun et al., 2010; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Pike & Scott, 2009; Schroeder, 1996). Due to the persistent general confusion in the field, antecedents have at any rate not been sufficiently verified.

In addition to WOM and eWOM, two more promotion related behaviors have been identified in relevant literature. To the knowledge of the researcher only mentioned by Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a), the residents’ personal usage of brand related promotional merchandise is one of them. The usage of these can help residents to become 'actively involved in promoting and living the brand' (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a, p. 481). Unfortunately, the distribution of these items is only given as a recommendation for DMOs in the study and no empirical follow-up is found in literature. In the case of 'Asia’s World City', a wide range of promotional items are sold online, as well as in five official stores throughout Hong Kong, ranging through a wide range of products, from neckties to handbags (BrandHK, 2013).

Lastly, willingness to participate in brand related promotional events has been identified as residents' promotional destination BAB. This can be done against a final retribution, or purely as a voluntary act. Propst and Jeong (2012, p. 31) specify that 'paid and unpaid interns and volunteers might be employed as ambassadors to represent Pure Michigan in public events, organize and participate in the campaign's promotional activities.' Attending events is also mentioned by Andersson and Ekman (2009) as an important feature of residents as being part of an organized ambassador network. This study suggests, similar to Eshuis and Edwards (2012), that if residents feel connected to their destination brand, they will not feel forced to participate but rather see it as a duty of their brand co-ownership. Regrettably, there is no empirical test of this concept found in literature up-to-date (see Table 2.2.).

Table 2.2. Residents' promotion related destination brand ambassador behavior

Type of residents' promotion related brand ambassador behavior	Authors
Word-of-mouth (traditional)	Braun et al., 2010; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Pike & Scott, 2009; Schroeder, 1996; Scott & Clark, 2006; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker & Petersen, 2010;
Word-of-mouth (online)	Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Braun et al., 2013; Propst & Jeong, 2012
Personal use of promotional material	Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a
Participation in brand related promotional events and activities	Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Propst & Jeong, 2012; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013

In addition to promotion related ambassador behavior, residents' destination brand development related BAB is found in literature (see Table 2.3.). On the core of this concept lies the idea that residents are not only willing to take an active part in the destination brand promotion, but also in its further implementation and development (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b). This behavior is manifested through expressing concerns to the branding agency or DMO (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Propst & Jeong, 2012), joining ambassador network related activities (Andersson & Ekman, 2009) and other brand development programs (Scott & Clark, 2006).

Table 2.3. Residents' development related brand ambassador behavior

Type of residents' development related brand ambassador behavior	Authors
Participation in future brand development (suggestions, meetings, comments)	Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; Propst & Jeong, 2012; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013; Scott & Clark, 2006

Similar to the case of promotional behavior, empirical evidence for this is extremely scarce. Nonetheless, a few suggested antecedents can be identified. Eshuis and Edwards (2012) propose residents' emotions, feelings and preferences towards the brand as a possible trigger. By defining residents as an internal destination brand target group and having identified brand attitude as a core related concept, this research aligns with the assumptions of brand attitude as a possible antecedent. Perceived self-congruity and empowerment are also found in related literature. Propst and Jeong (2012) suggest community access to brand related online portals as a possible precursor, while Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a) propose that the failed congruity between residents and brand was a cau se for unwillingness to participate in further brand development. Literature shows more divergence on how residents' destination BAB is used, namely by defining the brand as a symbolic construct or by considering it as synonymous to destination image.

2.3.3. Destination brand as symbolic construct versus destination image

Residents' destination BAB has been varying according to the object the behavior is actually referred to. This mirrors the previously mentioned academic confusion in the usage of the term 'brand' (see Chapter 2), on one hand as synonymous to destination image and therefore as highly subjective and context dependent, on the other hand as a symbolic construct which has been deliberately created by branding authorities in order to differentiate one phenomenon from the other.

First, BAB is used in relationship with destination image. A notable amount of literature emphasizes the residents' role as a catalyst for the promotion of their home destination (e.g. Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Pike & Scott, 2009; Schroeder, 1996; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). In other words, residents are shown to express BAB by fundamentally recommending a visit or the use of a tourism product to other people.

Although the importance of similar actions has been confirmed in literature, there is a question to be raised in how far the general image residents have of their home destination is dependent on non -controllable contextual factors exterior to the brand. Indeed, antecedents of destination image related types of BAB have been identified as ranging from general impressions of a home destination (Schroder, 1996), to personal identification with the location (Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011) and in extremis, general satisfaction with daily life (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). It is assumed that, due to the high contextuality of these factors which can hardly be manipulated by a DMO and other destination branding efforts, a few more examples of symbolic brand related BAB have emerged in recent literature.

Symbolic brand related BAB usually refers to residents' behavioral intentions towards a deliberately created branding campaign, following the tangible brand definition chosen for this research (see Chapter 2). In an up to date study Propst and Jeong (2012) investigate residents' reactions and subsequent BAB related to the recent 'Pure Michigan' brand, acknowledging that the later was created as a promotional tool by the government. Similar examples are given by other scholars on the brands of 'I feel Slovenia' (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b), 'Where else but Brisbane' (Scott & Clark, 2006), 'Austin – Live Music Capital of the World' (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012), and the Dutch destination brands of Katendrecht and New Crooswijk (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). Contrary to the previously mentioned studies focusing on destination image, these researches show far more tangible and manipulative antecedents of residents' destination BAB, among which perceived destination brand empowerment (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Propst & Jeong, 2012), identification with the brand (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a), and ultimately overall brand evaluation or attitude (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). As this research has chosen the brand 'Hong Kong – Asia’s World City', rather than the destination image of Hong Kong, as a study object, BAB behavior will be investigated as related to a symbolic brand construct and thus relevant antecedents will be considered.

Summarizing, residents can decide to join an organized ambassador network or rather to show spontaneous ambassador behavior in a private context. If they feel able to aid further development of the brand, they can also choose to refer just to the use of promotional items. The most relevant and commonly used reflections of residents’ destination BAB have been identified as (1) traditional destination brand WOM, (2) destination brand eWOM, (3) participation in destination brand related events and activities, (4) participation in future destination brand development, and (4) personal use of destination brand promotional material. The construct of BAB intentions used for this research is thus conceptualized as a reflective variable for the measurement model. This is due to three particular facts according to Coltman, Devinney, Midgley and Venaik (2008), namely (1) BAB intention exists as an independent concept and is reflected through elicitation of responses to certain possible behavioral indicators, (2) causality flows from BAB to its indicators (a change in BAB intentions causes a change in the related indicators), and (3) change in BAB intention precedes a change in the indicators (BAB intention increases and subsequently also the intentions to show the related behavioral indicators).

The reality that residents are able to choose among a w ide range of different destination BAB reflections also makes common criticism to residents’ participation such as lack of knowledge (Kadir Din & Oppermann, 1997), education, time, interest, ownership, resources, capital (Scheyvens, 2003), as well as a possible paralysis for the decision making process (Dinnie & Fola, 2009) not relevant for this study. As BAB has been successfully conceptualized and relevant reflections for this research have been identified, it is important to further investigate the identified possible antecedents of the former. The next section will therefore analyze relevant literature critically.

2.4. Antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior

2.4.1. Brand Attitude

2.4.1.1. Concept and definition

During the last century, the concept of attitude has been regularly discussed in social and psychological studies (e.g. Allport, 1935; 1954; Weber, 1947). Most commonly, attitude was defined in a rather general way as inclusive of cognitive, affective, motivational and behavioral attributes. According to Schwarz and Bohner (2001), attitude was often referred to as the probability of showing a certain behavior in a certain context. Also, attitude was more often used as a cultural and relatively collective term, while recent studies normally choose a more individualist and intrapsychic perspective (Crano, Cooper, & Forgas, 2010). Subsequently, the concept has evolved to be more of an evaluative (positive or negative, pro or contra) dimension (e.g. Ajzen, 1989; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In other words, it is considered a personal appraisal of or towards a certain object or entity. On the same line of thought, Icek Ajzen (1989, p. 241) gives a clear definition of the term, namely 'Attitude is an individual's disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event, or to any other discriminable aspect of the individual’s world.'

Some researchers argue that this evaluative construct is multidimensional, triggering overt and covert responses to an object in cognitive, affective, and behavioral terms (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Commonly, cognitive responses are related to beliefs, affective responses to feelings and emotions towards and object, and behavioral responses are used as synonymous with behavioral intentions (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh, & Best, 2007). While some multidimensional definitions argue that these three concepts are interrelated (e.g. Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), other researchers state that especially the strength of affective and cognitive components tends to vary among different individuals (Haddock & Huskinson, 2004). Ultimately, this has raised some questions on t he reliability and stability of the multidimensional attitude construct and, more recently, has led to another view on the subject.

Next to the multidimensional attitude construct, a one-dimensional characterization has emerged in literature (Muehling & McCann, 1993; Paul Peter & Olson, 2008). Contrary to the previously mentioned division into cognitive, affective and behavioral components, the one-dimensional definition states that attitude is purely 'the amount of effect a person feels for an object' (Paul Peter & Olson, 2008, p. 131). In other words, attitude is defined as a m ainly affective evaluation of an entity or object in question. Due to the flaws and inconsistencies of the multidimensional attitude construct, the one-dimensional definition is deemed as predominant in today’s literature (Paul Peter & Olson, 2008). Nonetheless, while not directly included within attitude, a close relationship with cognitive and behavioral concepts is definitely acknowledged (Hawkins et al., 2007; Paul Peter & Olson, 2008). Spears and Singh (2004, p. 55) give a clear definition of one-dimensional brand attitude, namely a 'relatively enduring, one-dimensional summary evaluation of the brand that presumably energizes behavior'. This definition is adopted also for this research.

During the second half of the 20th century, attitude has become a popular research topic also outside the field of traditional psychology. Visser and Cooper (2007) report a literature search on the term with 50.000 articles, chapters, books and dissertations being found across different study areas. Specific to the field of branding and marketing, the interest in attitude studies can be traced back to the early 1960's (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Hawkins et al. (2007) highlight that in this specific context attitude is usually related to the exposure of a subject to a certain brand or advertisement, which ultimately aims at changing attitude and behavior in favor of the relevant object. In current marketing and branding literature, two streams of research concerning attitude have been identified, namely attitude towards the ad (e.g. Brown & Stayman, 1992; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981) and brand attitude (e.g. Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Spears & Singh, 2004; Yalcin, Eren-Erdogmus, & Demir, 2009).

Attitude towards an ad is typically referred to as an emotive response to certain sensory stimuli (Muehling & McCann, 1993). This can be a personal reaction to an advertisement, promotion or commercial. Due to this momentary exposure to sensorial stimuli, attitude towards an ad is usually not deemed as long-lasting but rather as spontaneous. Brand attitude instead, refers to a more durable evaluation of a brand

(Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Yalcin et al., 2009). In the specific tourism context, destination brands are usually launched on a long-term basis and are not easy to be modified instantly. Tourism marketing campaigns and ads instead, play on the core values of a destination brand and promote them to different groups.

For this study, attitude towards an ad will be considered as attitude towards a destination ad while brand attitude is referred to a destination brand. Being concerned with a long-term evaluation based on permanent Hong Kong residents, this research will adopt and deal only with brand attitude, defined as a durable concept and not related to temporary exposure to sensorial stimuli. Furthermore, attitude towards an ad has been shown in literature to be merely a possible antecedent of brand attitude (Brown & Stayman, 1992; Gardner, 1985; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Spears & Singh, 2004), suggesting that brand attitude also encompasses the concept of attitude towards an ad, or different marketing efforts encountered during an extended period of time.

2.4.1.2. Overview of related brand attitude studies

Within the specific field of tourism studies, most attitude related research has been found within destination choice and post-visit attitude research. The earliest studies related to tourism destinations focus on exploring the relationship among attitude towards a place and the preference for a potential choice as a travel destination (Um & Crompton, 1990). Later, destination attitude is compared among people who have actually visited and not visited a certain location. In an early study, Baloglu (1998) questions the applicability of the traditional affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitude construct for tourist destinations. In his research it is shown that, particularly for people who had visited a certain destination, the affective part of attitude is more predictive for behavioral intentions than cognition (Baloglu, 1998).

More specific to residents, most related studies relate to residents' positive and negative attitudes towards tourism (Merrilees et al., 2007). On the other hand, when speaking about residents' attitude towards their own specific city brand, research is scarce at its best. Scott and Clark (2006) don't specifically use the term brand attitude, but speak about the residents' brand evaluation in the case of the Australian city Brisbane. Most interestingly in this case, is the distinction between residents living in the city and residents living in the surroundings, which were targeted with separate campaigns (Scott & Clark, 2006). The study suggests that destination branding has to be consistent over time and coordinate internal stakeholders in order to form a positive brand attitude and subsequent ambassador behavior. Unfortunately, this concept is not further elaborated. Simpson and Siguaw (2008) do not use the term 'attitude', but rather look into residents' place satisfaction as a possible antecedent of their ambassador behavior. Again, this is not related to the destination brand as a symbolic DMO related construct and therefore not directly comparable to the scope of this research.

Up to date, only two studies are found that investigate residents' attitude towards their destination brand and subsequent BAB. Kemp, Childers et al. (2012) identify brand attitude as a possible antecedent of residents' feeling of connection and subsequent brand advocacy. In the case of Austin, the study confirms brand attitude as a possible antecedent of WOM promotion, as well as a possibility for residents to 'promote greater synergy and pride in the city’s branding strategy' (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). The second study is Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek’s (2012a) case study on the new brand of Slovenia. Unfortunately, this study does not measure overall brand attitude but rather offers only an evaluative rating of the new slogan 'I feel Slovenia'. Although residents were found to respond relatively positively to the logo, identification with the brand was perceived as low and so was the willingness for future ambassador behavior (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). It is believed that this is caused by the focus on the brand logo only, while the construct used to measure brand identification includes items related to self-congruity as well as ambassador behavior.

Residents’ attitude towards their own destination brand has hardly been investigated efficiently, although there have been several studies underlining its importance in the context. Based on the limited information available in the field, the concept of brand attitude will therefore be drawn from previously mentioned studies from other fields. In conclusion, this research will define brand attitude as centered on an object (brand), evaluative (Eagle & Chaiken, 1993), affective (Baloglu; 1998), one-dimensional (Paul Peter & Olson, 2008), enduring (Spears & Singh, 2004), and as a possibly strong antecedent of behavioral intentions related to the brand (Hohenstein, Sirgy, Herrmann, & Heitmann, 2007; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Liu, Li, Mizerski, & Soh, 2012; Paul Peter & Olson, 2008; Schwarz & Bohner, 2001; Spears & Singh, 2004). Consequently, it is believed that brand attitude is not a spontaneous feeling triggered by sensorial stimuli, but a lasting and persisting long-term concept based on more effortful thought. In the case of permanent residents of a destination, it is deemed of outmost importance to maintain a long-lasting attitude towards a destination brand and trigger behavior over an extensive period of time. A longer effortful thought and more frequent confrontation with an object, in this case the brand, is believed to guide subsequent related behavior due to the personal value involved in attitude formation (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010).

As self-congruity and empowerment have been suggested earlier as possible antecedents of residents' destination brand attitude, the next section will investigate both of the remaining concepts and analyze relevant literature critically.

2.4.2. The self-congruity theory

2.4.2.1. Concept and definition

The self-congruity theory is based on the belief that products are not chosen only on their functional benefits, but also based on their symbolic images (Chon, 1992), which are able to express a consumer's identity (Aaker, 1997). Fundamentally, the theory states that this process takes form by a match of a consumer's personal characteristics and the characteristics of a product (Aaker, 1997; Caldwell & Freire, 2004). Aguirre-Rodriguez et al. (2012) give an example, which shows how important these symbolic benefits can be for a consumer. Many consumers have preferred to acquire an Apple iPhone over a more functional Android because the later lacks the identity-beneficial traits of the former (e.g. young and hip). In other words, congruity between product and consumer personality is believed to create favorable behavior and responses to the brand, which will result in a favorable evaluation of the product (Aaker, 1999; Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982; 1985a;

1985b; Sirgy & Su, 2000).Higher the match, more favorable is the consumer response believed to be.

Although the investigation of self-perception originates in classical Greek philosophy, the concept as it is mostly understood now is a relatively recent notion (Malhotra, 1988). Todd (2001) cites William James, an American psychologist, as the founding father of the modern self-concept. This does not incorporate only a person's physical self, but also the sum of consumed products, services, and people with whom the individual associates. In other words, the self is all that we call our own and all that we share an identity with (Sirgy & Su, 2000). This supposed strong bond to feelings and subsequent behavior has spurred the introduction of the self into different academic fields (Jamal & Goode, 2001).

While earlier studies used to measure the self as an unvarying and one-dimensional unit (e.g. Birdwell, 1968), more recent research has questioned this concept. Scholars have acknowledged that, in addition to being a subject, the self can also be considered an object of knowledge, a content of experience (Epstein, 1973; Malhotra, 1988). Finally, this reconstruction of the self-concept has led to a multidimensional definition of the self.

Table 2.4. Forms of the self

(Source: adapted from Todd, 2001)

Actual Self	**How a person actually perceives him or herself**
Ideal Self	How a person would like to perceive him or herself
Social Self	How a person thinks other perceive him or her

Ideal Social Self	How a person would like other to perceive him or herself
Expected Self	An image of self in-between the actual and ideal self
Situational Self	A person's self-image in a specific situation
Global Self-attitude	A conscious judgment regarding the relationship of one's actual to the ideal or social self

Todd (2001), based on Sirgy's critical review (1982), offers an overview of the most commonly used self-dimensions in consumer behavior. Actual, ideal, social, and ideal-social self are deemed as the most frequently used. While traditionally most attention in the academic world has been paid to the actual self-concept (how a person perceives him/herself) (Malhotra, 1988), later studies have discovered the ideal, social and ideal-social constructs as major components of the self (Sirgy, 1980; 1982). All together, these four construct are believed to appeal to both, the need for self-consistency and self-esteem of a person.

From the field of psychology, the concept of multifaceted self has entered the field of marketing and branding, and more recently the field of destination branding (Abdallat, 2009; 2012; Aguirre-Rodriguez et al., 2012). On the core of this lays the fact that the investigation of the self can give answers to why consumers take a certain action, opposed to more traditional issues of what they buy and where they do it (Sirgy & Su, 2000). This has given birth to the self-congruity theory within the field of tourism, and recently the academic interest within the field has grown substantially. In the context of traditional marketing, Hohenstein et al. (2007) propose the concept of 'overall congruity', which includes the multifaceted self but measures it in one single construct. As this method has been confirmed valuable for traditional product brands, this study will adopt the definition of 'overall congruity' for residents' destination brand self-congruity. The next section will look at and analyze studies which are relevant in this context.

2.4.2.2. Review of related self-congruity studies

The introduction of the self-congruity theory within the field of tourism is relatively recent (Hung & Petrick, 2011; Wassler & Hung, 2014) and its number is still restricted. From a consumer point of view, the particular value in this context lies in the fact that tourism destinations are usually not chosen only on t he basis of functional benefits, but also on a the need for a certain type of experience (Gartner & Konečnik Ruzzier, 2011). The chosen destination is therefore linked to the congruity between a destination's perceived and the consumer's personal personality traits.

Table 2.5. Overview of tourism-related self-congruity studies

Year	Author	Measurement	Congruity among tourists and	Related topics
1992	Chon	Direct	Other tourists	Satisfaction
2000	Sirgy & Su	Direct	Other tourists	Travel behavior, several moderators
2000	Goh & Litvin	Direct	Other tourists	Intention to visit
2001	Todd	Piecemeal	Destination (brand)	Consumption experience
2002	Litvin & Goh	Comparison	Other tourists	Intention to visit
2003	Litvin & Kar	Direct	Other tourists	Culture
2004	Kastenholz	Comparison	Destination (brand)	Intention to recommend
2007	Beerli et al	Piecemeal	Other tourists	Destination choice
2007	Murphy et al	Direct	Destination (brand)	Tourist needs, Brand Personality, Tourist behavior

Year	Author	Measurement	Congruity among tourists and	Related topics
2009, 2012	Abdallat	Direct	Other tourists	Satisfaction, Loyalty
2011	Boksberger et al	Piecemeal	Destination (brand)	Destination choice
2011	Bosjnak, Sirgy, Hellriegel, & Maurer	Direct	Destination (brand)	Satisfaction, loyalty, WOM
2011	Hung & Petrick	Piecemeal	Destination (brand)	Behavioral intentions, Functional congruity
2011	Usakli & Baloglu	Direct	Destination (brand)	Intention to return/recommend, Brand Personality
2012	Hung & Petrick	Piecemeal	Destination (brand)	Travel intentions
2012	Hosany & Martin	Piecemeal	Other tourists	Satisfaction, Experiences, Intention to recommend
2014	Wassler & Hung	/	Comparison	/
2015	Rojaz-Méndez, Papdopoulos, & Alwan	Direct	Destination (brand)	Attitude, Behavioral Intentions

According to Beerli et al. (2007), Chon (1992) is the first scholar to bring this concept into the context of tourist destinations. In his study he uses a direct measurement to match the image of a typical visitor to a destination with the self-image of past visitors. The results show that post-visit satisfaction is significantly correlated with destination self-congruity. Goh and Litvin (2000) and Litvin and Goh (2002) later reapply the same concept related to pre-visit intentions. While Chon's (1992) direct scale of measurement has been found to give significant results (Goh & Litvin, 2000; Litvin & Goh, 2002), a comparison of measurement methods questions the applicability of the theory in this specific context (Litvin & Goh, 2002). Destination self-congruity is later successfully related to cultural traits (Litvin & Kar, 2003) in the context of Singapore. Murphy et al. (2007) reconfirm the link between tourist self-congruity and satisfaction, while travel intentions are not seen as being interrelated. This contradicts earlier studies which had proven self-congruity as valid when related to pre-visit intentions (Goh & Litvin, 2000; Litvin & Goh, 2002).

Sirgy and Su (2000) change the spectrum of destination self-congruity research by raising awareness about the importance of multiple-selves and contextual factors. Nonetheless, most related studies up to date still use only one or two self-concepts, ignoring the four most important identified categories. Several studies have followed up focusing still on consumer self-congruity with a certain destination or other tourists to the destination. Related factors are tourists behavior (Todd, 2001), future travel behavior in a rural context (Kastenholz, 2004), post-visit behavior (Abdallat, 2009; 2012; Bosnjak et al., 2012), destination choice (Beerli et al., 2007), attitude towards destinations (Rojaz-Méndez, Papdopoulos, & Alwan, 2015), as well as travel motivations in a cruising context (Hung & Petrick, 2011; 2012). As a result, within the field of tourism and destination branding in general, only studies focused on consumer/tourist self-congruity could be found. Although the importance related to residents and destination branding has been frequently underlined by scholars (e.g. Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al. 2011, Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Zenker & Petersen, 2010), to the knowledge of the researcher, no study empirically testing residents' brand self-congruity in the strict sense exists up-to-date. An empirical proof of this is highly important because previous research has shown that DMOs can potentially influence perceived self-congruity through marketing efforts (Hohenstein, Sirgy, Herrmann, & Heitmann, 2007).

In spite of a lack of empirical proof, there have been various researchers approaching congruity as a possible antecedent for residents' destination brand attitude and subsequent ambassador behavior. Among the adopted denominations we find resident-brand identification (Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011;Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; Zenker & Petersen, 2010), identity salience (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008), and self-connection (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012).

Choo & Park (2009), as well as Choo et al. (2011), suggest that resident-brand identification leads to an attachment to the brand in cognitive, affective, and conative terms. Ultimately, a success in identification for all three factors was found to be connected to residents' destination BAB in terms of increase of visitor satisfaction, positive WOM, and participation in activities (Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011). Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a) reaffirm a similar connection by stating that the lack of residents' willingness to help future brand developments comes from the failed identification with the 'I love Slovenia' brand. In the study of Simpson and Siguaw (2008), a significant relationship among identity salience and satisfaction is confirmed, which can lead to destination brand promotion by the residents. Zenker and Petersen (2010) confirm a similar relationship, but treat the residents as an external brand target group. At last, Kemp, Childers et al. (2012) verify what earlier studies had suggested in terms of satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative terms. Self-brand connection is shown to be closely interlinked with residents' brand attitudes, which ultimately leads them to show BAB (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). Hohenstein et al. (2007) propose a concept of 'overall brand-congruity', which includes a multi-faceted definition of the self within one holistic construct. This research will adopt this definition of self-congruity.

Also, studies in other contexts have shown self-congruity to be a strong antecedent of brand attitude, highlighting the brands' functions as enhancers of self-esteem and self-realization (e.g. Hohenstein et al., 2007; Liu, Li, Mizerski, & Soh, 2011). It is therefore deemed as important for this research to measure destination brand self-congruity as a possible antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude, considering residents as an internal brand target group.

2.4.3. Empowerment

2.4.3.1. Concept and definition

A common definition of empowerment is given by Rappaport (1987, p. 122) as a process in which 'people, organizations and communities gain mastery over their affairs.' In this sense, mastery can be translated as a fundamental will to achieve power (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010; Masterson & Owen, 2006). Sadan (2010) summarizes the thought further by stating that empowerment represents the attempt of a single individual or community to master their lives or to gain control over it.

Initially born out of the social rights movements in the 1950's, 60's, and 70's (Crawford Shearer & Reed, 2004; Masterson & Owen, 2006), the original idea of empowerment was based on a deep mistrust towards social institutions, which were seen as not being sufficient to solve real world problems (Sadan, 2010). Although this belief still partially exists in empowerment studies, since the early 1980's several meanings of the term have emerged (Peterman, 1996) which are related to different types of ideologies. Sadan (2010, p. 74) distinguishes four ideological approaches within the field, namely 'ethnocentric', 'conservative liberal', 'socialist', and 'democratic'. The first is concerned with ethnic and other minorities, the second with a community perception as a social unit, the third with social problems, and the last with how to integrate democracy with other worldviews (Sadan, 2010).

For this research more important, there are two types of empowerment which are commonly used in literature (Wall, Cordery, & Clegg, 2002), namely political and psychological empowerment (Corsun & Enz, 1999; Sadan, 2010). Political empowerment is typically approached from a management's perspective. Bowen and Lawler (1992) state that it can be defined as giving employees the possibility to be included in four organizational ingredients, namely (1) information and (2) rewards about performance, (3) the necessary knowledge to give contributions, and (4) ultimately the power to make a contribution. In other words, a management body should guarantee that employees are sufficiently informed to make an own contribution, and ultimately do have the tools to do so. In an extended sense and recalling the previously mentioned comparison of residents to employees of a company, the same can be said about DMOs and residents of a destination. Friedmann (1992) gives an example of citizens' political empowerment in the context of poverty alleviation, inclusive democracy and gender equality. By empowering citizens politically to decision making power, social consensus as a basis for future government action and planned development can emerge.

The second type of empowerment found in literature is called psychological empowerment. Contrary to political empowerment, the later is not a m anagerial implication but rather a 'motivational process of an individual's experience of feeling enabled' (Corsun & Enz, 1999, p. 207). In other words, psychological empowerment is an individual's personal feeling of being in control of his/her work or position (Spreitzer, 2007; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). This makes it an internal feeling and less related to external structures (Gruber & Trickett, 1987). Spreitzer (2007) proposes that psychological empowerment is formed by four constructs, namely (1) meaning, (2) competence, (3) self-determination, (4) and impact. In other words, an individual will feel only truly empowered if his/her role fits the personal value positions, a person's believes in his/her own capacities, feels autonomous, and ultimately believes to have an influence on the outcome of a process. If these four conditions are met, an individual is most likely to feel psychologically empowered (Spreitzer, 2007).

Although political and psychological empowerments have been treated commonly as separate concepts, Sadan (2010) proposes that they could possibly be integrated. For instance, a management body could give the possibility for its employees to participate in a decision making process, but not force them to do so. This can make them feel psychologically empowered through political empowerment. In the context of destination branding, this concept would resemble the idea of ambassador networks as mentioned in Andersson and Ekman (2009), or other possibilities for residents to actually participate in the branding process. This possibility of doing so might enhance residents' psychological destination brand empowerment. Following the suggestion of Murphy and Murphy (2004) that psychological empowerment plays an important role related to residents and destination branding, political empowerment could indeed lead to several kinds of ambassador behavior, even if not directly related to ambassador networks (see spontaneous ambassador behavior). As potential co-owners of a brand, residents feel respected and subsequently responsible for the further success of the brand (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Zenker & Seigis, 2012). Psychological empowerment will therefore be considered as a possible antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude, which subsequently leads to destination BAB. Many other fields of study have shown similar relationships between psychological empowerment and attitudinal as well as behavioral outcomes. Among those we find satisfaction and commitment (Boonyarit, Chomphupart & Arin, 2010; Li, Li, Shi, & Chen, 2006; Patah, Radzi, Abdullah, Adzmy, Zain, & Derani, 2009), effectiveness and strain (Spreitzer et al., 1997), and also a relationship to residents' destination BAB has been suggested (Propst & Jeong, 2012).

2.4.3.2. Review of related empowerment studies

The concept of empowerment has been widely studied and applied across numerous disciplines (Petric, 2007), with Cattaneo and Chapman (2010) reporting over 14 million hits on Google Search, of which 6.226 only are concerned with the field of psychology.

Within the area of tourism research, empowerment is mostly referred to as community based, focusing more on group than individual empowerment (e.g. Stone, 2015). On the basis of this concept lies the belief that communities are able to act as relatively homogeneous entities (Sadan, 2010), and that there exists some kind of collective consciousness among its members (Davis, 1991). Although communities are frequently mentioned as being highly heterogeneous, Sadan (2010) underlines, based on practical experience, that especially the struggle for empowerment often pushes communities to act in a homogeneous way. Peterman (2006) reinforces this statement by highlighting that the empowerment of every single individual is intrinsically linked to community empowerment. In the context of residents and destination branding it is therefore assumed, that perceived individual psychological empowerment of a single person is able to act as a catalyst for community psychological empowerment, with each member of the society contributing to an overall perception.

Scheyvens (1999) makes an early contribution to the topic in the tourism field. In the context of local communities' empowerment related to ecotourism, she develops a framework which identifies four levels of empowerment, namely (1) economic, (2) psychological, (3) social, and (4) political (Scheyvens, 1999).

Table 2.6. Types of Community Empowerment in Tourism Development

(Source: adapted from Scheyvens, 1999)

Type of Empowerment	Signs of Empowerment
Economic Empowerment	The residents will benefit from long term financial benefits. Local services and infrastructures improve.
Psychological Empowerment	Self-esteem of the community is enhanced and further education and training opportunities for the residents' emerge. This will ultimately lead to an increase of wealth and empowerment of especially women and youth
Social Empowerment	Tourism improves community cohesion. Funds are raised to build public facilities such as schools or roads.

Type of Empowerment	Signs of Empowerment
Political Empowerment	The community can be represented on decision making bodies by raising questions and expressing their opinions in forums. The voice of the residents can be heard in political decisions.

In addition to the previously mentioned forms of political and psychological empowerment, a social and economic form is added. While social empowerment is believed to create a stronger sense of community among residents, economic empowerment speaks in terms of financial benefits (Scheyvens, 1999). As mentioned earlier, in this case only psychological empowerment is considered due to the specific context of residents and destination branding.

While more related to general community participation than to a specific context, the introduction of empowerment has led to its vastly growing popularity within the field of tourism. Since then the concept has been related to ecotourism (e.g. Farrelly, 2011; Koelble, 2011; Scheyvens, 1999; 2000), sustainable tourism development (e.g. Cole, 2006; Petrić, 2007), employment (Timmerman & Lytle, 2007; Ardahaey & Nabilou, 2012), gender, poverty reduction (Tucker & Boonabaana, 2012), and even alternative topics such as tourist photography (Scarles, 2012). Unfortunately empirical measurement of psychological empowerment is poorly reflected in resident-related destination branding research.

Only one study was found which empirically tests psychological empowerment in the context of residents' perception of a brand. Propst & Jeong (2012) measure residents' psychological empowerment in terms of policy control, leadership competence, participatory behaviors, and sense of community in relationship to the 'Pure Michigan' brand. With the exception of control over how relevant funds are spent, residents were found to feel sufficiently psychologically empowered. Unfortunately, this research is highly focused on a case study and not on giving a major theoretical contribution to the field of tourism research. With this exception, no other study concerning the empirical testing of residents' psychological empowerment in destination branding has been found up to date. This lack is deemed of major importance, due to the fact that the need for empirical evidence has been extensively mentioned in related research.

Research has shown that residents' empowerment is not the only feature that ties them to their responsible branding authorities as citizens and co-owners of a brand. It is widely acknowledged that in addition to power, trust also plays a crucial role in residents' attitudes and support for tourism related initiatives (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Ramkinsson, 2011; Nunkoo, Ramkinson, & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). It should therefore be expected that the concept of public trust will also play an important role in the formation of residents' destination BAB.

2.4.4. Public trust

2.4.4.1. Concept and definition

Public trust is commonly synonymous with trust in government actors (Nunkoo et al., 2012), which in the case of destination branding refers to the responsible branding institutions/DMOs. Lühiste (2006, p. 478) defines public trust as 'confidence that political institutions will not misuse power'. Principally, the concept can be summed up as a psychological state, which results in a positive attitude towards the partner and the belief that he/she will perform adequately (Nguyen & Rose, 2009).

Although a seemingly simple concept, public trust is extremely complex, draws from a number of disciplines, and there has been a considerable amount of confusion in how the term has been used in literature (Choi & Kim, 2012). In many cases, public trust has been used as synonymous with faith, political trust/support, confidence and satisfaction, while others have pictured it as both, an attitudinal as well as behavioral variable (Barber, 1983; Kim, 2005; Nunkoo et al., 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Kim (2005) identifies three main definitions of public trust in literature.

First (1), public trust has been used as a cognitive notion. Essentially, this means that trust falls somewhere in between total ignorance and total knowledge of public institutions and their acting, because either extreme of knowledge would make trust pointless (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). According to this definition, an individual makes a decision of giving or not giving public trust based on their evaluative knowledge of the government or other responsible institutions. This can be both, based on previous interactions with public institutes or simply on individual socialization, political affiliations and socioeconomic status (Kim, 2005). Second (2), public trust is defined as emotional attachment, i.e. an affective notion. Contrary to cognitive trust, affective public trust is believed to be less vulnerable to behavior and less subject to the desire of being in control. As such, public trust equals taking risks and is based on the confidence of mutually beneficial behavior, rather than on the need of monitoring the other party

(Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Anyhow, as public trust decreases, resident attempts to monitor the government will most likely increase (Mayer et al., 1995). Third (3), public trust can be linked to behavior. Most simply, this definition claims that public trust is contingent on how the government behaves towards its citizens (Kim, 2005). If residents' interests are not considered, promises are broken and programs are not implemented correctly, public trust will decrease. If the opposite is the case, public trust is likely to increase.

Kim (2005) explains that these three distinct dimensions, cognitive, affective and behavioral can be summarized into one concept of public trust. A merging definition would be the 'willingness of a trustor to be vulnerable based on the belief that the trustee will meet the expectations of the trustor, even in situations where the trustor cannot monitor or control the trustee' (Kim, 2005, p. 621). On the core of this idea lies the notion that residents are ready to be vulnerable, based on the expectations that the government will meet the promises in terms of commitment, benevolence, honesty, competency and fairness without being constantly monitored.

Complementary to a valid definition of the term, it also needs to be considered and investigated why public trust is academically as well as practically considered as essential for parties, governments and residents. First, public trust is of major importance for government institutions, because any public policy needs to exceed a minimum level of trust in order to be functional (Kim, 2005). Merely through public trust, authorities can use their skills flexibly and autonomously, while still guaranteeing to be responsive and effective in their actions (Fard & Anvary Rostamy, 2007; Gordon, 2000). As such, public trust can be considered as one of the most valuable social capitals, considering its tremendous influence on the quality of public administration (Fard & Anvary Rostamy, 2007). Second, there are also significantly positive effects on the carriers of public trust, namely the residents. From this side, public trust is believed to enhance cooperation, reduce risk, enhance satisfaction, increase commitment to the partner and the will to uphold the relationship, and ultimately decrease personal fear and greed (Hwang & Burgers, 1997; Kumar, 1996; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). A high level of public trust is therefore mutually beneficial for both, government and residents alike. Considering this fundamental importance of public trust for government institutions both, in theory and practice, researchers have made effort in conceptualizing the origins of residents' trust in the public.

Nunkoo and Smith (2013) highlight that there are two main competing theories in regard, namely (1) political trust stems from the belief that public institutions work effectively and (2) public trust depends on the evaluation of the performance of public institutions in relation to the expectations of the public. Fard and Anvary Rostamy (2007) add that antecedents of public trust are in any case performance driven, meaning that high performance inspires trust while poor performance is usually linked to distrust. Performance can in any case be separated into two dimensions, namely macro and micro performance levels. Macro performance refers to fluctuations in unemployment, economic growth, inflation, government stability etc., while micro performance refers to the perceived quality of public services (Fard & Anvary Rostamy, 2007). In many cases, also the president of a country is believed to inspire faith in the public institutions (Citrin, 1974; Citrin & Green, 1986). This is due to the fact that usually the president is the most portrayed element of public organizations by the media and thus its central actor. Often, feelings about an institution are created on the base of its representatives (Hetherington, 1998).

Considering the central position that public trust takes in the effective function of good governance and sustainable development, it is surprising to find a substantial lack of related theory in the field of tourism studies (Nunkoo et al., 2012). Recently there have nevertheless been several academic attempts to define the concept in a tourism context and to determine its theoretical and practical implications in the area.

2.4.4.2. Review of related public trust studies

Although residents' public trust has been acknowledged to be an important factor in tourism development (Beritelli, 2011; Beritelli, Bieger, & Laesser, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012), there is still a substantial lack of research in the area (Nunkoo et al., 2012).

Only a small number of studies have hitherto been investigating how the concept applies to the tourism field and the possible antecedents as well as consequences of public trust. Most of the previous studies also consider only residents' trust related to general support for tourism development, and destination branding has not been specifically dealt with. There are anyway various research findings within the tourism field which can be directly linked to trust in destination branding activities by government actors. Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) relate the concept of public trust to the notion of residents' perceived power/empowerment. Results of the study indicate that there is a strong relationship among the constructs, as well as a direct link between public trust and residents' support for various tourism initiatives. In the context of Mauritius, perceived empowerment was found to be a strong predictor of trust in government actors, while public trust was found to be a strong antecedent of residents' support for tourism development. Although not directly applied to destination branding, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) suggest that this relationship is likely to hold also among other tourism-related government initiatives, among which destination branding is central. In an adjacent study, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011) reaffirm the importance of residents' public trust and empowerment to show support for tourism initiatives. They suggest furthermore that DMOs should target an increase of trust among residents and 'segment the community based on their level of trust in tourism planning institutions and conduct an internal marketing program for those with low levels of trust' (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011, p. 980). It is therefore suggested that public trust, similar to self-congruity and psychological empowerment, can be positively manipulated by a DMOs internal branding efforts.

Two other follow up studies (Nunkoo et al., 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013) are as well concerned with the determinants of public trust. With more precise implications for the specific contexts of Mauritius and Canada where the relative studies take place, antecedents of residents' trust are investigated. While in the context of Mauritius residents' power, as well as interpersonal trust were found as significant antecedents, the context of Canada suggests that perceptions of political and economic performances of the government were highly related. Cultural norms and interpersonal trust instead were found as not significant in predicting public trust in Canada (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). On the basis of Bramwell and Lane's (2011) notion that governing tourism bodies take different roles in political contexts and Mishler and Rose's (2001) concept of trust in post-industrial societies, Nunkoo and Smith (2013) conclude that in Canada people tend to separate interpersonal trust and trust in governmental institutions. In other societies, the concepts can be nonetheless interlinked.

Recalling the specific case of Hong Kong, a non-tourism related study about public trust was undertaken by Cheung (2013). It shows that Hong Kong SAR authorities are facing a growing threat of public distrust, which has accumulated during recent years. While performance-based trust has been keeping up with economic achievements, value or identity-based trust from the residents' side is lacking. The reasons therefore were found to be 'due to the democratic deficit, and partly because of the lack of a general sense of common identity and shared values within the local population after reunification with China' (Cheung, 2013, p. 432).

This underpins the earlier notion of Donald and Gammack (2007) that the Hong Kong SAR residents' identity is a crucial factor for the development of an efficient destination brand and therefore needs to be considered carefully. Contrary to the general findings of Cheung (2013), specific investigation of the Hong Kong brand and the responsible authorities has shown that residents have been highly empowered in brand creation and implementation, and perceived power is usually related to the level of public trust (Cook, Hardin & Levi, 2005). Also, locals were found to have taken these opportunities to contribute to the brand with enthusiasm (see Chapter 1). Recalling Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2012) notion that public trust may be different for different segments of the government, public trust for destination branding authorities might as well be higher than for the general politics of the SAR. As public trust was found to be a predictor of supportive attitudes and behaviors across several cultures and destinations, the concept will be considered as a possible antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude and ultimately residents' destination BAB.

2.4.5. Place attachment

2.4.5.1. Concept and definition

Place attachment is commonly defined as 'the bonding that occurs between individuals and their meaningful environments' (Scannell & Gifford, 2010, p.1).

Although this definition is generally agreed upon, the concept has been complicated due to a wide range of theoretical and empirical approaches available in the field (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001). According to Ramkissoon, Smith and Weiler (2013), place attachment has been conceptualized differently as place dependence, place identity, place social bonding and place affect. Trentelman (2009) adds that often also sense of place is used as an overlapping concept. Anyhow, while place attachment implies a positive relationship among individuals and a place, sense of place can also have negative connotations. Place attachment is often used as synonymous with community attachment, although this is not directly related to a geographical space but rather to a human factor only (Trentelman, 2009). Nonetheless, born out of environmental and social psychology as well as urban sociology, the concept has been widely expanding to other fields (Hummon, 1992).

While academic standpoints on place attachment are various, most researchers agree that it is a multifaceted construct and several dominant perspectives can be identified in literature. A predominant distinction is found among 'attachment to the physical place' and 'attachment to the social place' (Brocato, 2006).

The physical dimension refers to the attachment to a certain spatial area, such as the house, neighborhood, street, city or nation (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001). This has moreover caused philosophical discussion on what can be called a place and in how far attachment can rank, e.g. from a house to the world (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Hidalgo and Hernández (2001) found the highest levels of attachment to the personal home and on a city level, but do acknowledge that different instances can be measured. Traditionally, quantitative approaches have been measuring the construct in terms of place identity and place dependence (Raymond, Brown & Weber, 2010). Place identity commonly refers to a link in identity. Trentelman (2009, p. 200) refers to it as 'my affiliation with 'this place' is part of how I want others to think of me'. As such, the dimension of place identity is highly connected to the notion of the self and to how it helps in defining an individual’s identity. In extremis, place identity is believed to define or enhance an individual’s personal self (Brocato, 2006; Cooper Marcus, 1992). Place dependence is the second dimension of this construct which has been regularly used. It commonly is based on an evaluative outcome when comparing one place to another (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001). In other words, an individual reflects on how well a place suits activities that he/she likes to do and on how other places would compare to this. This means that even if the option is negative, alternatives could possibly be worse. Place dependence does therefore not imply a positive feeling, but rather the lack of suitable alternatives (Brocato, 2006; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001).

In addition to the physical dimension of place attachment, attachment to the social environment has increasingly gained attention. The social aspect of place attachment normally refers to the fact that 'individuals not only become attached to the physical aspects of an environment, but also to the social actors (other individuals) and interpersonal interactions that occur within a setting' (Brocato, 2006, p. 16). In other words, individuals do not only feel a connection to the physical features of a place but also to the community, interrelationships and cultural features within, i.e. the social landscape of a place (Kyle & Chick, 2007; Low & Altman, 1992). This facet of place attachment has been confirmed to play an important role in establishing the construct. Hidalgo and Hernández (2001) highlight in a Spanish case study, that the social factor at its utmost contributes more to place attachment than the attachment to spatial areas. Mesch and Manor (1998) hinted a similar result earlier, by showing that the degree of place attachment was highly dependent on the number of friends and neighbors an individual knows in the area. This facet of place attachment is commonly measured through 'social bonding' (e.g. Ramkissoon et al., 2013; Raymond et al., 2010; Sampson & Goodrich, 2009; Trentelman, 2009). As such, it refers to the social bonds and interrelationships that an individual establishes in a place (Brocato, 2006).

Although there is still a wide array of discord among scholars in investigating place attachment, most studies confirm that the construct is certainly multifaceted and contains both physical and social dimensions. In the field of tourism there have been a growing number of studies addressing the concept from both, residents' and tourists' perspectives. As both, interaction with the physical as well as social environment are a growing topic within the area of tourism research, place attachment has found its natural role as an important factor to be considered in contemporary tourism studies.

2.4.5.2. Review of related place attachment studies

Within the field of tourism, place attachment has largely been used to explore tourists' emotions and behavior (Chen, Wu & Huang, 2012). Nonetheless, various scholars have raised the importance for residents' place attachment related to destination branding in terms of residents' supporting behavior and effective brand development and implementation.

The relationship among residents and their place has also been considered in destination branding studies (e.g. Campelo, Aitken, Thyne & Gnoth, 2014). Chen and Dwyer (2010) hypothesize that place attachment is a key concept in causing residents to show BAB, in terms of participation, WOM, retention and in-citizenship behavior. It is explained that customer loyalty to a brand can cause brand supporting behavior from the demand side. Residents, on the contrary, if they feel attached to their place, will be more likely to show related brand building behavior (Chen & Dwyer, 2010). Following up, Chen, Dwyer and Firth (2012) develop a framework that shows links among residents' place attachment and their related WOM behavior. Unfortunately, both studies are merely conceptional and do no t test the proposed models for empirical proof. Also, it is necessary to mention that both papers are not necessarily related to a DMOs branding efforts, but rather to a direct relationship among residents and the destination.

In a related study, Campelo et al. (2014) look into how residents' experience their 'sense of place' and in how far this concept can be used for successful destination branding efforts. In the context of an Island in New Zealand, sense of place is found to be related to the perception of time, ancestry, landscape and community, showing the concept as similar to the multidimensional place attachment notion. It is concluded that, by incorporating or appreciating the residents' sense of place within the branding strategy, a more sustainable and ultimately authentic brand can be developed (Campelo et al., 2014).

In another recent study Rehmet and Dinnie (2013) use qualitative techniques to investigate residents' motivations to effectively participate in the Berlin brand ambassador program. This refers mainly to what has been identified as planned ambassador behavior, i.e. making use of DMO provided channels and networks to promote or develop the brand. Participation was found to be related to what they call 'increased sense of belonging'. The ambassador behavior is shown to trigger a sense of affection and connection to the destination (Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013). In other words, residents can like certain branding efforts of a destination, but in order to effectively participate they have to already feel a sense of attachment to a destination or look for this feeling through BAB. Place attachment, as a strong feeling of belonging, can therefore be considered as influencing the final decision of only approving a brand or effectively supporting it.

Other tourism-related studies have indeed shown place attachment as a possible moderator among attitude and related behavior. Lee, Kyle and Scott (2012) take a tourists' perspective to confirm place attachment as a significant mediator between positive evaluation of a destination and subsequent loyalty. Place attachment as a construct was found to be the result of strongly related social interactions, emotional bindings and feelings for the location (Lee et al., 2012). Ramkissoon et al. (2013) confirm the tight relationship among evaluation, place attachment and behavioral intentions. In the context of a National Park in Australia, place attachment was shown to influence satisfaction with the place, as well as ultimately environmental behavioral intentions of visitors.

As place attachment has been related to residents and destination branding, as well as its link to attitudes and behavior is confirmed by previous studies, the construct is deemed as necessary to be included into this study. It is concluded that, although positive residents' destination brand attitude is likely to trigger BAB, place attachment is expected to act as a moderator, i.e. residents' with high levels of place attachment are more likely to show a stronger positive effect of brand attitude to BAB than residents with low place attachment. This is explained by the fact that the support for a DMOs branding efforts can be triggered by brand-related factors, but BAB as a residents' input or perceived duty is likely to be enhanced by a strong sense of attachment to a destination. Subsequently, place attachment will be considered as moderating the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB.

CHAPTER 3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

FOREWORD

This chapter includes the development of the conceptual framework. This will be logically derived by highlighting the proposition of hypotheses and the relationships among constructs. In conclusion, the research model for this study will be proposed.

3.1. Development of hypotheses

In the previous chapter, literature related to residents' destination BAB was analyzed. First, five reflections of BAB intentions were identified, namely traditional WOM, online WOM, participation in promotional events and activities, participation in future brand development and last, personal use of promotional material. Next, past studies have been categorized based on the roles of residents in place branding (Braun et al., 2010; 2013), and four possible antecedents of residents' BAB have been identified, namely destination brand self-congruity, destination brand empowerment, public trust in destination branding authorities, and destination brand attitude.

3.1.1. Residents' destination brand self-congruity is likely to positively affect residents' destination brand attitude

Self-congruity as a concept has been found to be highly related to brand attitude in several contexts. Sirgy, Johar, Samli and Clayborne (1991) have suggested that self-congruity is a reliable way to explain and predict consumer attitude towards brands. This is explained by the fact that consumers tend to base their attitudes related to brands not only on functional but also symbolic attributes (Sirgy, 1982). Based on previous studies by Sirgy et al. (1991) and Kressmann, Sirgy, Herrmann, Huber, Huber and Lee (2006), Hohenstein et al. (2007, p. 5) describe the relationship among self-congruity and the attitude as follows: 'If the self-congruity experience is high, then customers are likely to form an initial favorable attitude towards the brand. Conversely, if self-congruity is low, customers are likely to form an unfavorable attitude toward the brand, which in turn should bias their evaluation of the brand based on functional attributes.' In addition to this, self-congruity has also been found to predict product preference, brand preference, brand choice, consumer satisfaction, store loyalty and brand loyalty (Sirgy, 1982; Kressmann et al., 2006).

As attitude in this study has been defined as an evaluative concept (see Chapter 2), studies which have looked on the influence of self-congruity towards brand evaluations have to be considered. There have been a substantial number of studies which have confirmed such a relationship (Liu, Li, Mizerski & Soh, 2011). Freling and Forbes (2005) have shown through qualitative methods that consumers tend to embrace brands which are perceived to match their personality. This is explained by the fact that humans tend to anthropomorphize objects, i.e. imagine them as humans and assign human characteristics to them. As such, congruity among consumer and brand personality was found to affect 'consumers' feelings, perceptions, attitudes and behavior' (Freling & Forbes, 2005, p. 59). This suggests that self-congruity is able to influence a wide range of evaluative as well as behavioral components of humans. Bao and Sweeney (2009) have confirmed a similar relationship in the context of car brands, showing brand personality traits to have a significant relationship with preference, emotions, attitude, trust and willingness to pay a higher price for a product.

A number of studies have centered on the relationship between self-congruity and brand attitude. In a study on car brands in China, Liu, Olaru and Li (2008) have shown that self-congruity is likely to predict brand attitude. Hohenstein et al. (2007) operate in the same context of automobile brands, and found self-congruity to successfully predict brand satisfaction, attitude, and loyalty. Regarding luxury brands, Liu, Li, Mizerski and Soh (2012) found that especially user-image congruity is a strong predictor for positive brand attitude and loyalty. Brand personality congruity was not found to be significant in this specific context.

The relationship of self-congruity and brand attitude gains particular importance in the case of residents and destination brands, due to the fact that inhabitants are part of the brand promise and therefore of the branded product (Braun et al., 2010; Hankinson, 2004). Especially the cultural representation and identity of the residents within a destination brand is therefore believed to be a highly sensitive issue (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b). Not only can the residents compare their own self-perception with their representation within the brand, but how they are projected to the outside world can also influence the way they are perceived or stereotyped by outsiders (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a).

Several scholars have suggested that positive residents' destination brand attitudes will be likely if they can recognize their self-concept within the brand in terms of pride, local identity and self-esteem (Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009; Morgan et al., 2003; Wheeler et al., 2011; van't Klooster et al., 2003; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). In the case of residents and destination brands, several concepts which are close or synonymous to self-congruity have been suggested as possible antecedents of brand attitude, namely brand identification (Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a, Zenker & Petersen, 2010), identity salience (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008), and self-brand connection (Kemp, Childers et al., 2012). This study therefore proposes that the more inclusive concept of residents' destination brand self-congruity can lead to residents' positive destination brand attitude.

H1: Residents' destination brand self-congruity is likely to positively affect residents' destination brand attitude

3.1.2. Residents' psychological brand empowerment and residents' trust in destination brand authorities are likely to positively influence residents' destination brand attitude

Literature has suggested that residents' empowerment is believed to positively influence the perception of their own destination brand (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Propst & Jeong, 2012). The root of this idea can be deducted from the field of corporate branding, where psychological empowerment has shown to positively influence employees work attitudes and subsequent behavior (e.g. Logan & Ganster, 2007). If psychologically empowered, employees or in this case residents will feel as co-owners of the brand (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012), which will eventually influence their attitude towards and feeling responsible for the brand. Furthermore it has been suggested that the perceived respect as citizens through the feeling of empowerment is likely to arouse positive evaluations of the brand (Zenker & Seigis, 2012). This very feeling of being able to participate in the branding process and the subsequent positive residents, brand attitude has led many practitioners to consider a more inclusive approach to destination branding and there are plenty of examples which have emerged during the last years (Kalandides, 2012a).

Although psychological empowerment is frequently alluded to as a possible antecedent of positive residents' destination brand attitude throughout literature (e.g. Dinnie, 2008; Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Zenker & Seigis, 2012), empirical proof is scarce due to the fact that many papers are conceptual or focus on single case studies. Propst and Jeong's (2012) recent study on the brand Michigan forms a rare exception and succeeds in showing empirical evidence. The residents' were discovered to feel sufficiently empowered in the branding process, a fact that was deemed as a possible antecedent of residents' commitment to the brand. Most other scholars anyhow don't focus on the impact of psychological empowerment on positive brand attitude, but rather on the opposite. Several recent studies have shown that the lack of psychological empowerment can lead to negative brand attitude and subsequent indignation and counter-branding efforts (e.g. Bennett & Savani, 2003; Braun et al., 2010; Fan, 2006; Kavaratzis, 2004; Zenker & Seigis, 2012).

Connected to the notion of residents' empowerment is the concept of public trust (Cook et al., 2005). Similar to psychological empowerment, public trust has been found to be strongly related to residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism-related initiatives (Nunkoo et al., 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). This is also related to the fact that, if residents' public trust is high, they would not feel the need to investigate the context in which the brand is developed and implemented constantly, but would rather believe that the authorities are doing the right thing. Public trust has shown to be related to residents' attitudes towards government initiatives in various contexts. Examples therefore are attitudes towards public spending (Rudolph & Evans, 2005), policies which give little personal benefit but mainly cost for the residents (Hetherington & Globetti, 2002), foreign policy as well as national defense (Hetherington & Husser, 2012). If this is applied to the context of destination branding, residents' trust in the brand-responsible authorities is therefore a likely predictor of residents' attitudes towards the destination brand itself, destination brands being initiated by the public and partly financed by tax payers.

In both cases, there have been examples of negative consequences if residents lack psychological empowerment and/or public trust. As this study is anyhow concerned with positive attitude and subsequent brand ambassador behavior, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H2: Residents' psychological destination brand empowerment is likely to positively affect residents' destination brand attitude

H3: Residents' public trust in destination brand authorities is likely to positively affect residents' destination brand attitude

3.1.3. Residents’ psychological destination brand empowerment is likely to positively affect residents’ public trust in destination brand authorities

Evidence has shown that the dimensions of power and trust are highly related. Freitag and Bühlmann (2009, p. 557) have shown in their study on political institutions in 58 countries that 'institutions with a greater capacity for consensual and power-sharing are more likely to facilitate the development of social trust'. It is believed that through negotiation of interest in various stakeholder groups, public institutions can represent a society fairly. This will ultimately result in consensus and increase public trust (Freitag & Bühlmann, 2009).

On the contrary, distrust in public institutions is often caused by perceived power-inequality (Cook et al., 2005). It is natural that in a society there are inequalities in power, but the space for cooperative relations among various actors in the network is an enhancing factor for public trust. In other words, it is natural that the less empowered facets of society must belief in the leading forces, but this can be enhanced by empowering these strata to possibly contribute to policies within the limit o f their capabilities.

This notion stretches throughout all facets of political studies, and has recently also been confirmed in the field of tourism. Especially in the case of residents’ the relationship among psychological empowerment (perceived power) and public trust has been proven. This is not only related to the fact that residents’ actually can participate in decision making, but empowerment in this case also refers to knowledge, i.e. transparency of policies. In the case of Mauritius, findings suggest that residents’ level of power in tourism is a good predictor of their public trust (Nunkoo et al., 2012). This does not mean only that responsible institutions should inform the public about their policies, but also respond to priorities which are raised by the residents and give opportunities to contribute, also in terms of meaningful decisions.

In an adjacent study, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012, p.1000) argue that 'trust and power complement one another to predict social actors' behaviors across different contexts and situations'. This was confirmed in the context of Mauritius, where residents' empowerment was found to be highly significant predictors of their public trust in tourism institutions (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). In other words, empowering local people can result in more public trust, which ultimately will benefit outcomes of tourism-related policies.

For the case of destination branding, the same concept applies. As public trust as well as psychological empowerment was found to be sector-specific, destination brand psychological empowerment and public trust in destination brand authorities are assumed to be positively related. In other words, residents' who feel sufficiently empowered in the branding process are more likely to trust in the work of their respective DMO and subsequently the brand. As a result of this discussion, the following hypothesis for this study is therefore proposed:

H4: Residents' psychological destination brand empowerment is likely to positively affect residents' public trust in destination brand authorities

3.1.4. Residents' destination brand attitude is likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

The following hypothesis is based on a linear attitude-behavioral intention pathway. It is a common belief among researchers that attitudes are able to cause behavior (Olson & Zanna, 1993). In this case it is therefore supposed that if the residents show a positive attitude towards their destination brand, they will have intentions to show related BAB. Behavioral intentions are therefore meant to show the extent of which a subject is likely or not likely to show a certain behavior (March & Woodside, 2005). Several scholars have developed models to elucidate and investigate this link. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) propose the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), a linear pathway which highlights the influence of attitudes on behavioral intentions and subsequent voluntary behavior. This theory was later extended to the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) by Ajzen (1985) adding the notion of perceived control, which essentially considers behaviors which are not fully volitional. Furthermore, Eagly and Chaiken's Composite Model (1993) includes both, attitudes towards behaviors and attitudes towards an object as possible behavioral antecedents. This is especially important for this research, as destination brand attitude is defined as object- and not behavioral-based.

In this research, several types of residents' destination BAB have been identified in literature, namely traditional WOM, online WOM, participation in brand promotional events and activities, participation in future brand development and the personal use of brand promotional material. Traditional WOM, intended as positive, informal and non-commercial, has been discovered to the most frequently mentioned type of residents'

BAB. Several scholars have linked brand attitudes to subsequent brand WOM in the past. Westbrook (1987) suggests that WOM is particularly stimulated by affective responses to a brand, rather than by simple brand satisfaction. As attitude is considered as affective for this research, a link among positive brand attitude and positive brand WOM is likely. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) reaffirm this link, by showing brand WOM to be a consequence of 'brand love'. Contrary to common definitions of brand satisfaction, brand love is also referred to as more emotional than cognitive attachment to a particular trade name, being closely related to symbolic rather than utilitarian benefits. Again, this suggests a positive relationship between brand attitude and subsequent brand WOM. In the case of residents and destination brands, several scholars have linked positive evaluations of destination brands and subsequent residents' traditional WOM. Scott and Clark (2006) use the concept of brand evaluation as an antecedent, while Simpson and Siguaw (2008) as well as Chen and Dwyer (2010) confirm a relationship with brand satisfaction. Kemp, Childers et al. (2012, p. 515) furthermore suggest that if residents' approve a brand they are 'likelier to be responsible for favorable WOM communication and effectively performing an advocate's role'.

The tourism and travel industry has notably benefited from the growing usage of the internet. This has caused part of the informal communications such as WOM to be channeled through internet-based technology (Litvin et al., 2008). This is commonly defined as electronic WOM or eWOM (Henning-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). In the context of branding, eWOM has been found to be an important tool to positively enhance the brand perception of other subjects (Houman Andersen, 2005). In difference to traditional WOM, eWOM does not have any time and space limitations and is therefore an extremely valuable tool for DMOs and other marketers (McWilliam, 2000). Lots of famous brands encourage eWOM through the creation of specific networks or website which facilitate virtual sharing (McWilliam, 2000), and the same is found for destination brands which offer resident ambassador networks or websites for the same purpose (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Braun et al., 2010; Propst & Jeong, 2012).

Although antecedents of brand eWOM have found to vary, positive emotions towards a brand play a crucial role in the process (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). In other words, if the community agrees with the brand's core message, positive brand-related eWOM will be more likely. In this way, online-ambassadors act as a 'living manifestation of the brand's personality' (McWilliam, 2000, p. 54). In the specific case of residents, it is therefore believed that a positive attitude towards their own destination brand is more likely to transform them into online-brand-ambassadors through eWOM. If the DMO succeeds in positively influencing the residents as a stakeholder, eWOM can constitute a valid opportunity to strengthen the brand (Braun et al., 2010; 2013). As discussed in previous literature, this is possible through organized ambassador networks or other brand-independent platforms or websites. Due to the importance of residents' eWOM for the success of a destination brand, this research will also consider this as a type of residents' BAB in addition to traditional WOM.

Through participation in brand related promotional events and activities, residents are believed to be a possible communication catalyst for branding authorities (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). This can be done through participation in public events organized by the responsible DMO and organizing or helping with the brand's promotional activities (Propst & Jeong, 2012). In order to form a similar ambassador community, at the starting point there needs to be a shared enthusiasm for the brand (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006). Subsequently, residents who participate in public events and activities for promoting their destination brand need to have a positive attitude towards the brand first in order to take this step. This is particularly critical in the case of destination branding, because the brand might possibly shape the way residents are perceived and stereotyped by external observers (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). In other words, if the residents do not agree with how their destination is being represented within the brand, they will most likely not lend themselves as ambassadors in brand related promotional events. If the DMO succeeds in stimulating the intention to participate in similar activities, there is still the need to provide an opportunity to do so which fits the ability of the possible ambassador (Sukoco & Wu, 2010). Contrary to WOM and eWOM communications, events need to be organized first and intention can transform into effective behavior. In the special case of 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City', the branding authorities have offered various possibilities for residents to do so and awareness should be sufficient (see Chapter 1).

Summarizing, it is believed that in order for residents to participate in destination brand-related promotional events and activities, there needs not only to be a given possibility to do so, but also a positive attitude towards the brand and how it represents the destination. As in this special case the brand message directly refers to the resident as possible brand ambassador, his/her personal feelings towards, or approval of the brand is believed to play an even higher role than in traditional product and service brands.

In addition to promoting the brand, residents are also believed to play an important role in the future development of their destination brand (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b; Propst & Jeong, 2012). This is mostly done by letting residents express their feelings and emotions regarding the brand and incorporate them in the further development process (Eshuis & Edwrds, 2012). Subsequently, residents' BAB can also be development related and is not necessarily promotion-focused. Suggestions, meetings and comments related to the brand have been identified as a possible residents' contribution (see Chapter 2).

Residents' development related BAB is believed to be strongly influenced by their brand related feelings, emotions and preferences (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). It is believed that a b rand is evaluated carefully before intention of development related BAB emerges. Indeed, if residents' fail to recognize and accept the destination brand as representative for their destination and ultimately for themselves, they will most likely refuse to help in the brand's further development process (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; Scott & Clark, 2006). A positive perception and feeling towards the brand is therefore an essential starting point. This link among positive brand attitude and intention of development related BAB is very likely due to the high amount of time, creative ideas, emotions and ultimately effort which are needed in order to contribute to further brand development (Bogoviyeva, 2011). In other words, residents will make a considerable amount of effort to do so and there needs to be a strong positive feeling about the brand in order to inspire such behavior. As mentioned earlier related to participation in promotional events and activities, DMOs need to give the possibility for residents to participate in further brand developments first as a precondition. Unfortunately, a significant number of DMOs still fail to do so in practice (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' anyhow fulfills these preconditions (see Chapter 1). As a result of this discussion and the previous discussions, it is therefore believed that residents' positive destination brand attitude is highly likely to influence the residents' intention to contribute to the further brand development.

Another effective way of destination brand promotion is to encourage residents' use of brand promotional material (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). According to Kendrick (1998, p.313), common promotional material include 'useful or decorative articles or merchandise – that may be imprinted with a company's name, logo or message – utilized in marketing or other communication programs'. These are also fairly common for destination brands and 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' offers a wide range of item choices (see Chapter 1). It is believed that the residents' use of similar products as BAB is advantageous in promoting a destination brand through giving the impression of the brand as 'being lived' by its most reliable ambassadors (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a).

Similar items can be sold but also given by the branding authorities as gifts in games or other brand-related activities (Kendrick, 1998; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). The ultimate goal providing similar products for residents' is therefore not merely the sales revenue but also the promotional value of the items being used. If residents agree to use promotional brand items, they will increase their being identified with the brand (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). In order to do so, it is once again assumed that they have to have positive feelings about the brand in the first place in order to accept this identification. On the contrary, negative brand attitude has resulted in the use of counter-brand promotional items in the case of Birmingham and other destination brands (see Chapter 1).Subsequently, it is assumed that if residents of a destination show a positive destination brand attitude, they will be more likely to use brand promotional items. As a conclusion of this discussion, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

H5: Residents' destination brand attitude is likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

3.1.5. Residents' destination brand self-congruity, residents' destination brand psychological empowerment, and residents' public trust in destination brand authorities are likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

There are several studies showing a direct connection among self-congruity and behavioral intentions without necessarily referring to attitude. In the case of tourists, several pre-visit behavioral intentions such as intention to visit (Beerli et al., 2007; Boksberger et al., 2011; Goh & Litvin, 2000; Hung & Petrick, 2012; Litvin & Goh, 2002) have been found to be positively connected to self-congruity. Also, several post-visit behaviors such as WOM (Bosnjak et al., 2011; Hosany & Martin, 2012; Kastenholz,

2004) and intention to return (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011) have been confirmed as directly connected to perceived self-congruity.

In the case of residents and destination brands, Choo and Park (2009) as well as Choo et al., (2011) had suggested a direct link among identification with the brand and behavioral intentions in terms of WOM and other types of brand promotion. Also, Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a) as well as Kemp, Childers et al., (2012) strengthen this notion in the same context, suggesting that the concept of congruity might be directly linked to BAB. While it was hypothesized that residents' destination brand self-congruity is positively linked to residents' destination brand attitude, it is therefore also assumed that residents' destination brand self-congruity can have a direct positive effect on residents' destination BAB.

Psychological empowerment, although generally tied to attitudes, has also found to be directly linked to behavioral intentions. Especially in the case of employees scholars have suggested that psychological empowerment causes more effective working behavior (Spreitzer et al., 1997) and organizational commitment (Boonyarit, Chomphupart & Arin, 2010; Chian & Jiang, 2008; Li, Li, Shi, & Chen, 2006; Patah, Radzi, Abdullah, Adzmy, Zain, & Derani, 2009). Rawat (2011, p. 146) adds that psychological empowerment can stimulate workers to 'exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization'. In the case of residents and destination branding this strengthens the notion that psychologically empowered residents will feel as responsible owners of the brand, and subsequently show effort to make the brand succeed (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Zenker & Seigis, 2012). It is therefore assumed that residents' psychological destination brand empowerment can have a direct positive influence on residents' BAB intentions.

Similar to psychological empowerment, public trust is normally related to residents' attitudes, but has also successfully been linked to their direct support and commitment to government acts or policies (e.g. Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). The effort that residents' can show in being brand ambassadors for a destination brand if sufficiently empowered, is therefore also possible if they feel that they can trust the branding authorities. This means that, if the brand was developed by government actors which are trusted to do the right thing for the destination and its inhabitants, residents are likely to support it. It has been shown in past residents' destination brand ambassador studies that the feeling of the brand being beneficial for the locals can inspire destination BAB (Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013). Residents' psychological empowerment and public trust can therefore not only influence brand attitude by making them evaluate the brand better, but is also likely to inspire direct brand support in terms of destination BAB.

Also, the roles of residents in place branding were initially drawn as 4, namely integrated part, citizens, target group and ambassadors (Braun et al., 2010). In a later re-elaboration of the concept, Braun et al. (2013) limit the roles to 3, namely integrated part, citizens and ambassadors. Brand attitude has been found as a crucial concept when considering residents as an internal target group (see Chapter 2) and it might therefore be able to mediate the relationship among the four other constructs, referring to the residents as integrated part, citizens and ambassadors. Subsequently, it is assumed that residents' destination brand self-congruity and residents' destination brand psychological empowerment can have a direct positive influence on their intention to show BAB, without necessarily having to show a positive brand attitude.

Following this discussion the following two additional hypotheses will be formulated:

H6: Residents' destination brand self-congruity is likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

H7: Residents' destination brand psychological empowerment is likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

H8: Residents' public trust in destination brand authorities is likely to positively affect residents' BAB intention

3.1.6. Residents' place attachment is likely to moderate the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' BAB intention

Place attachment has been found to play and important role in resident-related studies. In particular, residents were found in several studies to have different levels of place attachment which subsequently trigger different behaviors.

Brown, Perkins and Brown (2003) have suggested in a study concerned with neighborhood revitalization that residents with higher levels of place attachment are more likely to engage in community efforts, such as house improvements. Residents with lower levels of place attachment, on the contrary, are less likely to make efforts benefiting their place of residence. Kelly and Hosking (2007) have also suggested that in the case of nonpermanent residents, higher levels of place attachment can lead to efforts benefiting a destination, such as membership in local community organizations and willingness to spend more in the location.

Another study from the Netherlands has suggested similar distinctions between residents with high and low place attachment. In the case of the city of Utrecht, Dekker (2007) highlights that both, high emotional as well as special attachment, motivates residents to participate in formal and informal activities related to their destination. Accordingly, residents with higher levels of place attachment will be more likely proud to show positive related behavior (Dekker, 2007).

As in the field of tourism and destination branding, residents' place attachment has been hypothesized to stimulate positive brand-related behavior (Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Chen et al., 2012; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013), it is supposed that high and low levels of residents' place attachment might influence the degree of their related BAB intention. In other words, residents with lower levels of place attachment are still likely to appreciate the branding efforts of a DMO and to positively evaluate a destination brand. Anyhow, the behavioral intentions which are caused by positive attitude are possibly stronger in individuals with higher place attachment. The influence of place attachment on m ere evaluation of a destination and subsequent loyalty has been highlighted in the case of tourists (Lee et al., 2012, Ramkissoon et al., 2013), and it is hypothesized that this is the case also for residents.

Summarizing, residents' with higher level of place attachment are more likely to have a higher level of BAB triggered by a positive brand attitude, while for residents' with a lower level of place attachment the opposite is assumed to be true. In light of this discussion, the following hypothesis is formed for this research:

H9: Residents' place attachment is likely to moderate the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' BAB intention

3.2. Proposed model for the research

As a result of the previous discussion, a model for this research is proposed on a linear perception – attitude – behavioral intention pathway. Deducting from the reviewed literature, residents' destination brand congruity, residents' psychological empowerment and residents' public trust in destination brand authorities are provided as separate constructs in order to predict residents' destination brand attitude (H1, H2, & H3). All of the constructs are have been conceptualized theoretically, as well as been identified as able to be manipulated through a DMOs internal branding efforts (see Chapter 2). Residents' psychological empowerment and residents' public trust in destination brand authorities are found to be related, with psychological empowerment as a possible predictor or public trust (H4). On a linear pathway, residents' destination brand attitude is employed to predict all types of identified residents' BAB intentions (H5). As there have been identified direct possible links among residents' destination brand congruity and residents' BAB intentions, as well as between residents' psychological empowerment, residents' public trust in destination brand authorities and residents' BAB intentions, three more direct hypotheses are drawn (H6, H7 & H8).The literature review has also suggested that residents' destination brand attitude could have a mediating effect on H6, H7, and H8. It is therefore as well deemed necessary also to consider the possibility of brand attitude a possible mediator, on both the relationship between self-congruity and BAB intentions, as well as psychological empowerment and BAB intentions and political trust in destination brand authorities and BAB intentions (H6, H7& H8).Finally, the roles of residents in place branding identified by Braun et al. (2010; 2013), namely integrated part, citizens, target group and brand ambassadors, act as a background theory to predict the main constructs' (self-congruity, psychological empowerment, political trust in destination brand authorities, brand attitude and BAB) relationship among each other. At last, place attachment was found to be a possible moderator on the relationship among brand attitude and BAB intentions. Literature has shown that residents with higher levels of place attachment tend to be more actively involved into destination-related activities than residents with lower levels of community attachment. It is therefore assumed that place attachment will moderate the relationship between brand attitude and BAB intentions (H9). Finally, a framework is proposed for this research (see Figure 3.1.)

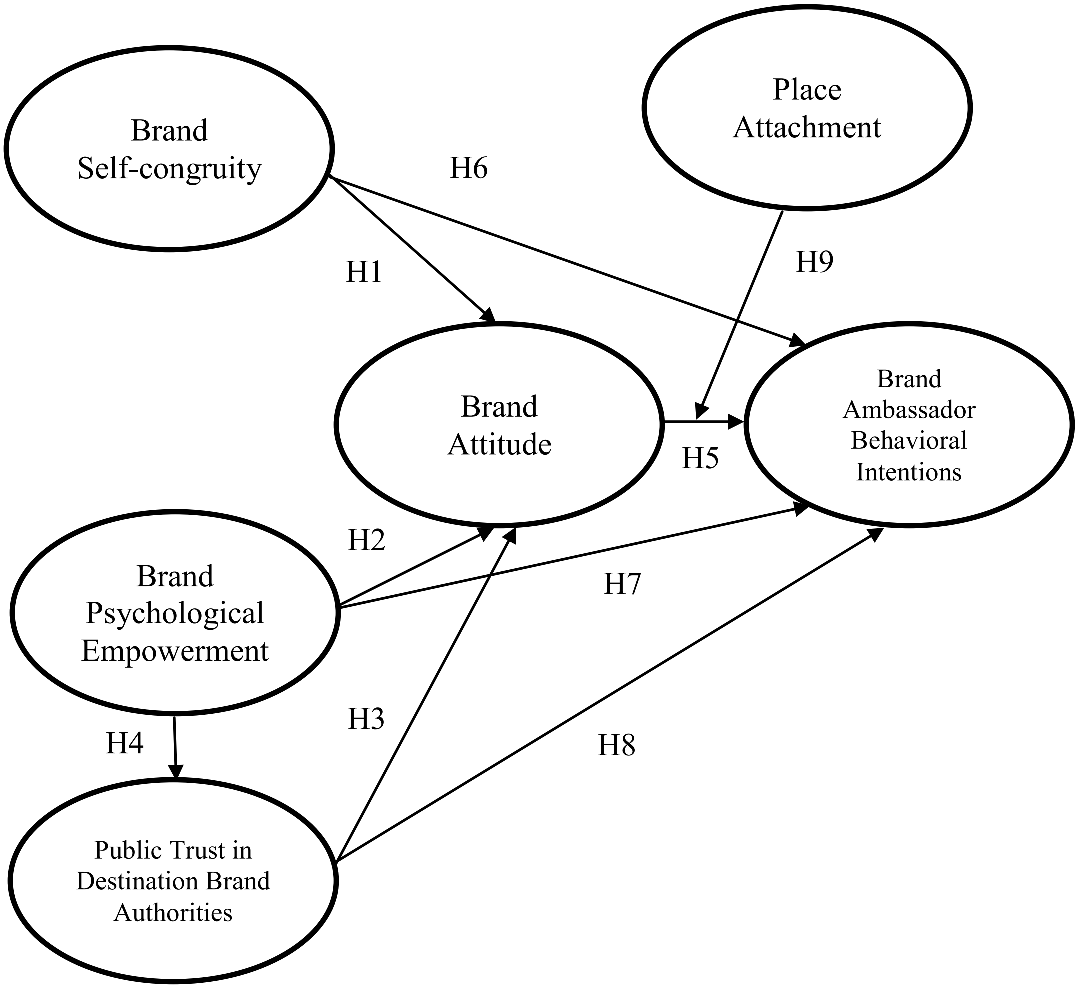

Figure 3.1. Proposed model for the research

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

FOREWORD

This chapter offers an explanation of the methodology employed for this study. First, the research design employed by this study will be discussed. Second, it will explain the measurement selection and development this study will adopt. Third, the qualitative pre-study and sampling designs are explained. Last, this chapter will discuss the method of analysis which will be employed for the proposed research model and its hypotheses.

4.1. Research design

The choice between quantitative and qualitative methods should be determined by the research goals and not the affiliation of the researcher (Marshall, 1996). The ultimate research goal of this study is to propose and empirically test a framework explaining the antecedents of residents' destination BAB, making use of the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand and the Hong Kong residents. Based on the research problems and objectives (see Chapter 1), as well as relevant literature (see Chapter 2), the decision has been made to employ mainly quantitative research methods, with qualitative approaches as an additional tool.

The complex nature of interrelationships among the factors which have been identified in literature requires some degree of quantification and the subsequent use of quantitative measurement methods (Abeyasekera, 2002). Furthermore, quantitative results can also be summarized numerically and with certain degree of confidence. As the study has taken a mainly DMO-aimed perspective, a high degree of credibility is vital for the results. As residents are a relatively large target population, quantitative methods are vastly effective in terms of representation, if correct sampling procedures are followed and applied (Abeyasekera, 2002).

Also, a conceptual model has been proposed (see Chapter 3) which could be tested best with quantitative methods. The main constructs included were destination brand self-congruity, destination brand psychological empowerment, destination brand attitude, and BAB intentions. The later was reflected in intention of traditional brand WOM, intention of brand eWOM, intention of participating in brand promotional events and activities, intention of participating in future brand development, and intention of personal use of brand promotional materials. There are specific reasons why BAB behavior is measured through intentions rather than effective show behavior. Resarchers like Morowitz, Johson and Schmittlein (1993) have acknowledged in the past that intentions do not always lead to action, while there is an undeniable link among the two concepts (Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). As this study includes current perceptions and attitudes towards the brand, intentions are nonetheless the most effective way of measuring BAB. In other words, brand perceptions and attitudes might have changed over time, and thus the link among these constructs in their current form and past shown behavior might be biasing results. It is thus believed that BAB intentions are the most realistic way to explore residents' BAB and its antecedents.

The possible relationships have thus been hypothesized in nine assumed hypotheses, following a linear intention - attitude – perception pathway.

As most of the literature was taken from a Western context and was applied to the case of Hong Kong, i.e. an Asian context, it was deemed necessary to confirm the framework and applicability of the theory through in-depth interviews with Hong Kong residents. In-depth interviews are generally an effective means to understand a group perspective as well as individual perspectives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Convenience sampling was employed until the stagnation of information. As the framework was confirmed as applicable to the context of Hong Kong, the study proceeded to the next phase.

Based on the literature review a s et of measurement items were identified and developed for all the constructs. The measurement items were also tested with an expert panel in a pretest (see Chapter 4).

Next, a pilot study (n=199) was held in order to test the reliability and validity of the results, as well as to confirm the feasibility of the research. The final questionnaire was then employed for the main survey. Finally, the collected data was analyzed following descriptive analysis, principal component analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modeling. At last, the findings have led to a discussion and conclusion.

To re-cap, the research design was following a customized adaption of the most classical steps suggested for tourism research by Pizam (1987), namely (1) formulation of the research problem/goals, (2) literature review, (3) development of hypotheses and framework, (4) selection of sampling procedures, (5) measurement selection and pretest(6) pilot study/finalizing of questionnaires, (7) main survey, (8) data processing/analysis, and finally (9) discussion of findings/conclusion.

Table 4.1. Proposed research design

(Source: adapted from Pizam, 1987)

Stages of research design	Actions taken
Formulation of research problems/goals	Introducing theoretical and practical background information related to the study. The problem statement leads to the identification of the research objectives. Contributions of the study are highlighted.
Literature review	Offers a critical view on the related theoretical background. BAB is conceptualized and eventual antecedents are identified as crucial constructs for the study.
Development of hypotheses and framework	Based on the literature review, hypotheses are logically derived and the relationship among the constructs is highlighted. In conclusion, the research framework is proposed.
Selection of sampling procedures	On the base on the identified population for the research, the sampling procedures are chosen and explained in terms of sample size and design.
Measurement selection and pretest	Measurement items are chosen/developed. In-depth interviews with residents will be held in order to confirm the framework. An expert panel is thereafter used to validate the measurement items.
Pilot study/ finalizing of questionnaires	A pilot study, followed by an expert panel, is held to test the reliability and validity of the results and to confirm the research feasibility. PCA is used to define underlying variable structures.

Stages of research design	Actions taken
Main survey	If the pretest and pilot test are satisfactory, data is collected with the help of a survey agency.
Data processing/analysis	Data is screened for problems and CFA are used to confirm the previously identified constructs. SEM is used to explain the relationship among the variables based on the data set, following the standard procedures of the method.
Discussion of findings/conclusion	Finally, findings of the study are discussed and related to academic literature. Research objectives are achieved and conclusion is written.

4.2. Study settings and population

4.2.1. Study settings

The Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (SAR) is a dynamic, highly urban city with more than seven million inhabitants. Returned back to China in 1997, the SAR maintains a special economic, legal and social system which separates it from the motherland. Hong Kong, although scarce on natural resources, is renowned to be the world's tenth largest trading economy, sixth largest foreign exchange market, tenth largest banking center and one of Asia's top three stock markets (BrandHK, 2012). Chinese and English are official languages and the city has managed to be internationally competitive, as well as being able to attract a vibrant and highly qualified international community (BrandHK, 2012).

The international flair of Hong Kong is also represented in its destination brand, 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City', which has been selected for this research (see Chapter 1). This destination brand was chosen in order to achieve the objectives of the study for several reasons:

- Residents' brand awareness: The residents of a destination should be sufficiently aware of their own brand in order for a BAB measurement to be realistic. In the case of 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City', the local branding authorities have significantly involved the local community in reshaping the brand (see Chapter 1). It is therefore assumed that the residents of Hong Kong should be sufficiently aware of the brand in order to investigate the antecedents of their relevant BAB.
- The possibility for residents' to participate in the branding process: In order for residents to effectively be able to show different kinds of BAB, the branding authorities have to provide the possibility for them to participate in the branding process. In the case of 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City', the branding authorities do not only provide several platforms for residents' participation, but do a lso encourage BAB for the future development of the brand (see Chapter 1). The chosen destination brand is therefore an example where BAB is not only effectively made possible by the responsible entities, but also highly encouraged and appreciated. The finding will therefore also benefit the Hong Kong Tourism Board and relevant branding authorities in the further brand development and promotion.

- The availability of promotional items: In order to investigate the intention of residents to make personal use of brand promotional items, there needs to be an opportunity to acquire them. Hong Kong offers a wide range of promotional items, sold both in official stores as well as online (see Chapter 1). The availability and wide range of choices of items will facilitate the realistic measurement of the residents' intention of usage of such items.

4.2.2. Study population

The population surveyed for this study was permanent residents of the Hong Kong SAR (HKPRs), which are the following according to Hong Kong Basic Law, Article 24:

(1) Chinese citizens born in Hong Kong before or after the establishment of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region;

(2) Chinese citizens who have ordinarily resided in Hong Kong for a continuous period of not less than seven years before or after the establishment of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region;

(3) Persons of Chinese nationality born outside Hong Kong of those residents listed in categories (1) and (2);

(4) Persons not of Chinese nationality who have entered Hong Kong with valid travel documents, have ordinarily resided in Hong Kong for a continuous period of not less than seven years and have taken Hong Kong as their place of permanent residence before or after the establishment of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region;

(5) Persons under 21 years of age born in Hong Kong of those residents listed in category (4) before or after the establishment of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region; and

(6) Persons other than those residents listed in categories (1) to (5), who, before the establishment of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, had the right of abode in Hong Kong only.

The choice of selecting HKPRs as the study population was made because a basic condition for this status is to be born, or at least have resided in Hong Kong for seven years. Familiarity with the local culture and the destination brand were therefore assumed. Only HKPRs could fulfill these basic preconditions that this study had set for its population, while non-permanent residents might not.

In order to understand the study population more in-depth, basic information about the local culture and ethnicity were necessary. Approximately 95% of the Hong Kong residents are ethnically Chinese, followed up by Indonesians (1.9 %) and Filipinos (1.9%) (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2012). Although the city has heavily leaned towards internationalization and has a British colonial history, the population is fairly ethnically and culturally homogeneous and understanding the local culture will be an important condition for understanding the results of this study.

4.3. Sampling design and sample size

This study adopted a quota sampling design for the main survey. Quota sampling is a commonly used method in surveys and it has also been suggested as an effective tool for online sampling (Eun-Ok & Wonsh, 2011).

Segwick (2012) describes quota sampling as a non-random and non-probability sampling technique. Accordingly, the number of respondents is usually decided in advance. A common practice is to subdivide the population into different strata, which in the case of sampling residents can be sex, age, employment status and others (Segwick, 2012). The identification of the respondents' strata is usually based on their proportion within the whole population. As such, quota sampling is a good way to sample a large number of respondents, but anyhow, it cannot be claimed to fully represent the population as a whole (Eun-Ok & Chee, 2011). As the target population for this research is HKPRs, quota sampling was anyhow deemed as the most adequate considering the temporal and financial limitations of this study.

Agresti and Finlay (2009) have suggested dividing geographical areas into districts, and sampling proportional to their number of inhabitants. This is usual for studies regarding cities, and they are often pre-divided into districts. Zikmund (1997) had suggested that this form of geographical distinction is particularly adequate to reflect geographical distributions of the respondents.

Quota sampling asks to establish a quota of respondents prior to data collection. In the case of this study, HKPRs was sampled according to age and gender as proportionate to the total population of Hong Kong. This was done for several reasons.

First, age (18-24, 25-44, 45-64, 65 or more) and gender are among the most commonly and efficiently used strata in quota sampling (Sedgwick, 2012). Second, this information is easily and reliably available from Hong Kong authorities. Respondents were stratified first by sex, and then within the sex groups by age (Sedgwick, 2012). It is believed that through the choice of quota sampling and by selecting sex and age as strata, a relatively reliable overall picture of the HKPRs could be given. As an addition, respondents were sampled according to their geographical distribution within Hong Kong, i.e. area of residency. Subsequently, the number of respondents necessary for this study had to be identified.

This research used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) for the data analysis, due to the complexity of the theoretical model and the numbers of hypothetical relationships estimated. It was therefore essential to adequately estimate an appropriate sample size to be employed. Several suggestions for the minimum sample size for testing SEM models have been found in literature. In general, most authors recommend a minimum sample size of 100 respondents for good and reliable results (e.g. Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) also agree on the minimum of 100 samples, but highlight the fact that there are several factors which influence the choice sample size for SEM:

- Models with five or fewer constructs: Minimum sample size 100.
- Models with seven or fewer constructs, modest communalities (.5) and no underidentified constructs: Minimum sample size 150.

- Models with seven or fewer constructs, communalities below .45, and/or multiple underidentified (fewer than three) constructs: Minimum sample size 300.
- Models with large number of constructs, some with lower communalities, and/or having fewer than three measured items: Minimum sample size 500.

As this study included 8 constructs, which is considered a relatively large number, the minimum sample size should not be less than 500. Generally it is agreed upon that larger samples do anyhow produce a more reliable outcome (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). As HKPRs are a very large population to sample, a sample size of 650 respondents and 200 for the pilot study were therefore deemed as adequate.

The ratio of males and females among Hong Kong residents is 0.943:1 (The Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013). The respondents were also divided into 4 age groups as it is common in quota sampling. The groups were (1) 18-24 years, (2) 25-35 years, (3) 35-44 years, and (5) 45-54 years. Although the internet use of Hong Kong residents above the age of 45 years is relatively high (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013), Toluna Account Manager Will Hui suggested that most of it reaches to a maximum of 54 years of age and older segments are difficult to contact (, personal communication, March 9, 2013). Respondents older than 54 years were thus not included in the survey which is a minor, but existing limitation. Toluna Survey Account Manager Will Hui (personal communication, March 9, 2013) had provided data based on a census by the US Bureau, in which the following quota of respondents was suggested based on the number of Hong Kong residents:

Table 4.2. Proportion of respondents

	Gender	
Age	Male	Female
18-24	7%	7%
25-34	13%	12%
35-44	14%	15%
45-54	13%	18%
	Area of Residency	
17%	Hong Kong Island	
33%	Kowloon	
50%	New Territories and Outlying Islands	

For the collection of data an online survey was held with the help of the survey company Toluna. Toluna is regarded as 'one of the world's leading panel and survey technology providers', operating in 39 different countries (Toluna, 2013, p. 2). The company recruits members through various methods, among which are web-banners, website referrals, pay-per-click, natural search optimization, affiliate marketing, email, and online public relation activities. Toluna creates personal member profiles for its respondents, which include demographical and attitudinal information. Based on this information, members are selected for surveys for which they are qualified (Toluna, 2013). For ensuring data quality, Toluna rigorously controls that respondents are (1) real, (2) valid, (3) unique, (4) engaged, and (5) representative for the relevant survey. This is made possible through the wide and diverse audience that the company has attracted. Completed surveys are rewarded with credits, which also guarantee the response rate. Also, this allowed 'hard-to-reach' audiences to be targeted (Toluna, 2013). Quota sampling had been chosen for this research and has also been stated as a tool widely used by the company (Toluna, 2013). As such, quotas of respondents which fall into certain categories were formed and then contacted directly in order to fill the survey. According to the local Toluna account manager Will Hui, in Hong Kong alone Toluna has 12000 - 15000 active panelists and a total of 50000 respondents can be reached through their partner networks (personal communication, March 3, 2013). This gives a large database for an online survey and is fairly useful in representing large populations.

The practice of online surveying has been rising enormously in popularity in previous years and it is expected that most future surveys will be held online (Schonlau, Fricker Jr., & Elliott, 2002). Evans and Mathur (2005) have identified several advantages of using an online sampling technique and a survey agency over traditional sampling methods.

First (1), global reach. Online surveys have been frequently criticized for being only partly representative of the target population. With the rapid growth of internet use in many parts of the world, respondents can be reached easily and problems of representativeness are disappearing. Second (2), B-to-B as well as B-to-C appeal. Business to business as well as business to consumer surveys can be held with relative ease. Third (3), flexibility. Online surveys can be easily tailored to suit the respondents, and through the help of an agency language problems can be bridged. Fourth (4), Speed and time. Data can be collected in a much more time-efficient way than with traditional methods. Fifth (5), technological innovations. Thanks to the advancement of technology, online survey displays are believed to be as unbiased as traditional paper surveys. Sixth

(6), convenience. Respondents can fill the survey at their ease and take all the time needed for answering questions. Seventh (7), ease of data entry and analysis. Data is stored in the database by the survey agencies and time as well as possible error in inputting data is avoided. Eight (8), question diversity. Different types of questions can be included at the same time (e.g. multiple choice, dichotomous etc.). Ninth (9), low administration cost. The advancement of technology has kept the cost for online surveys reasonably low. Tenth (10), ease of follow-up. Survey agencies can send reminders if the questionnaires are not filled. Response rate for online surveys are usually very high. Eleventh (11) controlled sampling. The sampling method can be chosen with the help of the survey agency. Twelfth (12), large samples are easy to obtain. E-mailing is a simple process and a high number of respondents can be obtained in a relatively short time. Thirteenth (13), control of answer order. Survey bias can be reduced by forcing respondents to answer questions in a given order. Fourteenth (14), required completion of answers. One answer has to be completed in order to advance to the next question. Fifteenth (15) go to capabilities. Online surveys can be constructed in a way that respondents only answer the questions chosen specifically for them. Sixteenth (16), knowledge of respondent and non-respondent characteristics. Characteristics from all the respondents are known and it is easy to compare demographics.

As the advantages of online surveys and the hiring of survey agencies are numerous, several crucial advantages applied also to this study. First, about 80% of Hong Kong households do own a private PC with internet connection (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013). During the last 10 years, this trend has been growing on an annual rate of 7.7%. Also the representativeness of Hong Kongers above 45 years is relatively high, with almost 50%, resulting in having used the internet at least once in 12 months, while all the younger generations report over 90% positive response (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013). For this study it was therefore believed that Hong Kong residents could be reached with relative ease, with the bias on older generations being an existing limitation but not highly significant.

Second, as the researcher does not speak Cantonese the online survey agency was be more efficient in approaching Hong Kong residents. Miscommunication bias and distrust could be minimized and a language bias could largely be avoided. This was also aided by the fact that online surveys can now be tailored in the same way as paper surveys and response rates are usually high, i.e. obtaining filled survey is easier online.

Finally, the busy lifestyle of Hong Kong made it difficult to approach the respondents onsite and ensure the time to give well-thought and unbiased responses. The use of an online survey guaranteed the choice of an appropriate time of the day to answer the questions carefully and fully aware. Also, the relatively large target population (HKPRs) needed careful sampling, a large number of respondents, and complete as well as trustworthy information on demographics. Also, by approaching residents on-site, it was not guaranteed that they actually reside in the area where they are approached, a feature which is necessary for the chosen sampling technique. The survey company could provide all these attributes with relative ease and at a reasonable price. The agency could also guarantee a determined number of filled surveys for a pilot test (n=199) before proceeding with the main survey.

Nonetheless, several limitations of the online survey technique also have to be acknowledged. Evans and Mathur (2005) mention (1) perception as junk mail, (2) skewed attitudes of internet population (upscale, male, etc.), (3) questions about sample selection, (4) respondents' lack of online experience, (5) technological variations (e.g. monitors of different sizes), (6) unclear answering instructions, (7) impersonal feeling, (8) privacy issues, (9) sometimes low response rate. For the case of Hong Kong only a limited number of these issues had to be considered. The use of a survey agency and their contact with respondents were able to avoid the survey to be perceived as junk mail, lacking of privacy, and low response rates. The internet population in Hong Kong is relatively equal distributed among males and females (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013). However, a bias on respondents above 45 years of age had to be partly acknowledged as a limitation due to the estimated 50% of internet use only. Although the median age of HKPRs is below 45 (see table 4.1.), a possible bias for the exclusion of older respondents was acknowledged as a limitation.

4.4. Measurement selection and development

This study has employed the use of structured questionnaires for data collection. In the branding and marketing context, the choice of similar measurement methods has proven successful in order to explain, understand, predict and control phenomena, as well as to solve problems for marketing researchers, brand managers, and advertising executives (Bagozzi, 1994). Structured questionnaires have furthermore been shown as successful in measuring knowledge, attitude, emotions, cognition, intentions and subsequent behavior

(Rattray & Jones, 2007). As the model proposed for this research followed a linear perception – attitude – intention pathway, the selection of a structured questionnaire was deemed appropriate.

Structured questionnaires do usually imply the use of measurement scales. Likert scales are among the most popular tools in order to measure attitudes and opinions (Bowling, 1997). Similar scales assume that levels of agreement are linear, normally ranking from five or seven to nine points following an agree/disagree order (Rattray & Jones, 2007). As similar scales have been proven successful in measuring a wide range of items also in tourism research, this research has employed 7-point Likert scales for the questionnaire. 7-point scales are thought to be more precise and more informative than lower scales (Alwin, 1997). The choice of measurement items was based on the previous literature review (see Chapter 2), as well as on the qualitative pre-study and expert panel.

4.4.1. Measurement of residents' destination brand ambassador behavioral intentions

This study has identified several reflections of residents' BAB intentions, namely traditional WOM, eWOM, participating in future brand related promotional events and activities, participating in future brand development, and personal use of brand promotional material (see Chapter 2). Several scales have been found to measure the above constructs and have been adapted to suit the context of this study.

As traditional WOM refers to a brand, in this case 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City', a measurement for brand WOM had to be applied. Regarding the brand of Austin

(USA), Kemp, Childers et al. (2012) had adapted a 3 item scale from Kim, Han, and Park (2001) in order to measure residents' brand WOM in an earlier study (Cronbach's alpha previous study: 0.95). As this measurement items had been confirmed with a CFA in a similar context and was fit for the objectives of this research, they were adapted to the case of Hong Kong residents. Residents' brand eWOM was also being measured with a 3 item scale, previously used by Okazaki, Rubio and Campo (2013) and adapted from Verhoef, Frances and Hoekstra (2002) (Cronbach's alpha pervious study: 0.94). It was previously used successfully to investigate online brand promotion in a consumer study (Okazaki et al., 2013). While Okazaki et al. (2013) used the measurement only in the context of social networks, the items were adapted to a more general 'online' dimension, which includes the former as well as possible ambassador networks and other means of online communication.

Both types of participatory intentions, namely participating in future brand related promotional events and activities and participating in future brand development, were measured with two different adaptations of the same measurement scales. Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a) had measured residents' brand participatory intentions earlier in the case of Slovenia with a 1 item scale. As this was not deemed sufficient for the methodology chosen by this study, 2 more items were adapted from Lin (2006) and an earlier study by Taylor and Todd (1995). The later measure participatory intentions by adding the dimensions of planning and excepting to participate in brand promotion or development respectively.

Last, residents' intention of personal use of brand promotional material was measured by a 3 item scale adapted from Vijayasarathy (2004) (Cronbach's alpha pervious study: 0.88). As to the knowledge of the researcher there is no study which has measured this before, the measurement items are adapted from a study investigating the intention to use on-line shopping. On overview of all the measurement items used to measure residents' BAB intentions is given in the following table 4.3.:

Table 4.3. Measurement items for residents' BAB intentions

Original Scale	Modified Scale
WOM **Kim et al., 2001** **Kemp, Childers et al., 2012**	
I recommend to other people they would support Austin Music events	I would recommend to other people they would support the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
I talk directly with other people about my experience with Austin Music events	I would talk directly with other people about my experience with the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
I suggest to others that they should attend Austin Music events	I would suggest to others that they should attend 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' events
eWOM **Okazaki et al., 2013;** **Verhoef et al., 2002**	
I would write about this campaign in my SNS so that my contacts would get to know this promotion	I would write about the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' online so that my contacts would get to know this brand
I would pass this information to my friends through my SNS	I would pass information about the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand to my friends online

Original Scale	Modified Scale
I would maximize the diffusion of this campaign on my SNS to make sure all my contacts would know	I would maximize the diffusion of the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand online to make sure all my contacts would know
Participating in future brand related promotional events and activities Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a	
In the future, I will contribute to the brand's development	In the future, I would participate in the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
Lin, 2006; Taylor & Todd, 1995	
I plan to participate in the virtual community in the future	I plan to participate in future 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
In expect to participate in virtual communities in the future	I expect to participate in future 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
Participating in future brand development Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a	
In the future, I will contribute to the brand's development	In the future, I would contribute to the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand's development
Lin, 2006; Taylor & Todd, 1995	
I plan to participate in the virtual community in the future	I plan to participate in future 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand development
In expect to participate in virtual communities in the future	I expect to participate in future 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand development
Personal use of brand promotional material Vijayasarathy, 2004	

Original Scale	Modified Scale
I intend to use the internet frequently to do my shopping	I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material frequently
I would use the internet to do my shopping whenever appropriate	I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material whenever appropriate
I would use the internet to do my shopping in the near future	I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material in the near future

4.4.2. Measurement of residents' destination brand attitude

There are several ways in which attitude is used throughout literature; the most common ways being as a multidimensional or a one-dimensional construct (Paul Peter & Olson, 2008). As this study had defined brand attitude as an object-centered, evaluative, affective, one-dimensional and enduring (see Chapter 2), a measurement which considers these traits separated from behavioral intentions has to be looked into.

In the case of residents' and their relevant destination brand attitude, specific empirical measurements are scarce. In the case of the Slovenia brand, Konečnik Ruzzier and Petek (2012a) self-develop a 2 item 5-point Likert scale but merely focus on the attitude towards the brand slogan. The measurement for residents' destination brand attitude was therefore adapted from traditional marketing research and originally refers to traditional product brands. Originally developed by Helgeson and Supphellen (2004), the scale was revised to automobile brands by Hohenstein et al. (2007) and consists of a 4 item 7-point Likert scale measurement (Cronbach's alpha previous study: 0.954). As this scale captures brand attitude as an affective and evaluative construct, it fits the definition which had been developed for this specific research. Therefore, the following items were used to measure residents' destination brand attitude for this research:

Table 4.4. Measurement items for residents' destination brand attitude

Original Scale	Modified Scale
Destination brand attitude **Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Hohenstein et al., 2007**	
I like brand x	I like the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
Brand x is a good brand	'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' is a good brand
I have a positive impression of brand x	I have a positive impression of the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
I find brand x very personable	I find the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand very personable

4.4.3. Measurement of residents' destination brand self-congruity

First of all, different types of self-congruity are found in tourism studies (see Chapter 2). The most popular ones are actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self-congruity, appealing to both, self-esteem and self-realization of an individual (Sirgy, 1982). Consequently, by dividing the self into several sub-dimensions, the multidimensional character of self-perception is acknowledged and different layers of congruity can be established (Hung & Petrick, 2011). However, all studies in the tourism field using sub-dimensions of self-congruity focus on a destination itself, or on a typical visitor as a congruity object. When talking about a specific brand, the concept of overall or 'brand' self-congruity has been developed out of a mix of different measurements (Hohenstein et al., 2007). As the overall brand self-congruity measurement has been shown to include and follow several other types of congruity, a one-dimensional brand self-congruity measurement developed by Hohenstein et al. (2007) was used (Cronbach's alpha previous study: 0.965).

This type of measurement also had the advantage to be holistic. Several past studies use piecemeal approaches in measuring self-congruity, which usually compare various dimensions trait-by-trait with the use of semantic scales (Sirgy & Su, 2000). On the contrary, holistic scales do not consider the brand as a sum of its parts, but rather as an encompassing concept (Sirgy et al., 1997). The later have been shown to be less confusing, and ultimately more accurate in measuring self-congruity (Kastenholz, 2004; Litvin & Goh, 2002). The 7 i tem scale adapted from Hohenstein et al. (2007) was therefore a one-dimensional measurement of brand self-congruity and followed a holistic, rather than a piecemeal approach (see table 4.5.):

Table 4.5. Measurement items for residents' destination brand self-congruity

Original Scale	Modified Scale
Destination brand self-congruity **Hohenstein et al., 2007**	
I can completely identify with brand x	I can completely identify with the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
Brand x is a lot like me	The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand is a lot like me
Brand x reflects what I am	The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand reflects what I am
Brand x is exactly how I see myself	The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand is exactly how I see myself
If I was a brand, I would be brand x	If I was a brand, I would be 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City'

Original Scale	Modified Scale
The brand x image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	The 'Hong Kong- Asia’s World City' image corresponds to my self-image in many respects
Through the brand x I can express what I find important in life	Through the 'Hong Kong- Asia’s World City' brand I can express what I find important in life

4.4.4. Measurement of residents’ destination brand psychological empowerment

Empowerment is a term and concept which is widely applied throughout several academic fields and can be interpreted differently (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). A primary concern for this study had therefore been the definition of empowerment in the context of residents and destination brands. Finally, psychological empowerment has been identified as a possible antecedent of residents’ destination brand attitude and subsequent BAB (see Chapter 2).

The instrument most predominantly used for measuring psychological empowerment in research has been a 3-dimensional, 12-item scale by Spreitzer (1995). A main contribution of this measurement item has been that psychological empowerment can indeed be considered continuous (Likert-scale) rather than just dichotomous (yes/no). Although widely applied, this scale has generally been used in work-related contexts, among which the manufacturing industry (Spreitzer, 1996), health care (Mishra, Mishra, & Spreitzer, 1998) and various areas of the service industry (Kim, Losekoot, & Milne, 2013). As this study did not deal with paid employees but rather with residents, a more appropriate measurement scale has been found in Propst and Jeong’s (2012) policy control adaption of the Sociopolitical Control Scale (Cronbach’s alpha previous study:

0.770). This measure has been used successfully to quantify residents' psychological empowerment related to the 'Pure Michigan' brand. Also, the Spreizter-scale has been shown in several studies to be encompassing of attitude (e.g. Gazzoli, Hancer, & Park, 2010; Kim & George, 2005). As this study considered attitude as a separate construct, the following adaption of the scale of Propst and Jeong (2012) wass deemed as more appropriate:

Table 4.6. Measurement items for residents' destination brand psychological empowerment

Original Scale	Modified Scale
Destination brand psychological empowerment **Propst & Jeong, 2012**	
I feel I have a pretty good understanding regarding the issues surrounding the Pure Michigan campaign	I feel I have a pretty good understanding regarding the issues surrounding the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much as possible in influencing a state government agency like the Pure Michigan campaign	I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much as possible in influencing a state government agency like the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting the state programs like the Pure Michigan campaign	People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting the state programs like the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the Pure Michigan funds are spent	There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand funds are spent

Original Scale	Modified Scale
It is important to vote in state elections that might influence the outcome of the Pure Michigan campaign	It is important to vote in state elections that might influence the outcome of the 'Hong Kong-Asia's World City' brand

4.4.5. Measurement of residents' public trust in destination brand authorities

The concept of public trust originates from the field of political studies, having been used as synonymous with faith, confidence, satisfaction with the public, as well as a cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral variable (Barber, 1983; Choi & Kim, 2012; Kim, 2005).

Public trust in tourism authorities was a relatively new concept and has shown empirical evidence only during recent years. Usually public trust had been measured divided in different sectors, such as economic trust and trust in government sectors (e.g. Nunkoo & Ramissoon, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). This is done by splitting authorities into different sectors (e.g. District Council, Village Council etc.) and rating them individually on Likert scales.

In 2012 Nunkoo et al. have introduced a m ore holistic measurement scale, measuring residents' public trust in tourism institutions in the context of Mauritius with SEM (Composite reliability previous study: 0.85). As this study did not consider the behavioral component of public trust, but rather saw the concept as an antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB, Nunkoo et al.'s (2012) scale was deemed as appropriate. Also, the method used in the study equaled the method in which the construct was proven to be reliable.

This study furthermore dealt only with public trust in authorities responsible for the destination brand and did not measure different perceptions of diverse public institutions. Therefore, this more holistic measurement scale was seen as more appropriate than individual piecemeal ratings. The following 3 i tem adaption of the Nunkoo et al. (2012) scale was therefore used for this research:

Table 4.7. Measurement items for residents' public trust in destination brand authorities

Original Scale	Modified Scale
Public trust in destination brand authorities Nunkoo et al., 2012	
You can generally trust decisions made by tourism institutions	You can generally trust decisions made by institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong-Asia's World City' brand
You can generally trust the people who run tourism institutions to do what is right	You can generally trust the people who run the institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong-Asia's World City' brand to do what is right
Tourism institutions can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them	Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong-Asia's World City' brand can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them

4.4.6. Measurement of residents' place attachment

Literature has shown a substantial lack of agreement on how to measure place attachment. This is not only due to the confusion among place dependence, identity, social bonding, affect and sense of place (Ramkissoon et al., 2013; Trentelman, 2009), but also due to the fact that place attachment is usually agreed upon to be a multidimensional construct.

Traditionally, if considered as a p hysical dimension, place attachment is measured through a second order of place identity and place dependence (Raymond et al., 2010). This anyhow represents the place only as a physical entity and does usually not consider social ties. Subsequently, the social aspect of place attachment has been gaining attention in recent studies and has been incorporated within the construct in several ways (Brocato, 2006). The most common way of doing so is to measure social bonding, i.e. the individual interrelationships that people establish in a location. In a recent tourism-related study using SEM, Lee et al. (2012) have incorporated the three main second order constructs of place identity, place dependence and place social bonding. In this case, factor analysis has shown that in tourist destinations the place identity and place social bonding are indistinguishable, grouping them into one construct and keeping only place dependence separate (Composite reliability previous study: 0.96 & 0.95). In light of the top-tier journal in which Lee et al.'s (2012) research was published, the applicability to tourist destinations and the similar choice of methodology, the following 14 item scale for place attachment was used for this study.

Table 4.8. Measurement items for residents' place attachment

Original Scale	Modified Scale
Place attachment **Lee et al., 2012**	
I feel my personal values are reflected in this town	I feel my personal values are reflected in Hong Kong
I identify strongly with this town	I identify strongly with Hong Kong
This town means a lot to me	Hong Kong means a lot to me
I am very attached to this town	I am very attached to Hong Kong

Original Scale	Modified Scale
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this town	I feel a strong sense of belonging to Hong Kong
If I were to stop visiting (or be away from) this town, I would lose contact with a number of friends	If I were to stop visiting (or be away from) Hong Kong, I would lose contact with a number of friends
Many of my friends/family prefer this town over other places	Many of my friends/family prefer Hong Kong over other places
I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in this town	I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in Hong Kong
I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) this town	I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) Hong Kong
For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, this town is the best	For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, Hong Kong is the best
I prefer this town over other places for recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy	I prefer Hong Kong over other places for recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy
For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting in this town	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting in Hong Kong
Other places cannot compare to this town	Other places cannot compare to Hong Kong
When others suggest alternatives to this town for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose this town	When others suggest alternatives to Hong Kong for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose Hong Kong

4.5. Validation of measurement items

The used scales and measurement had to undergo a test for reliability and validity, which is an essential prerequisite for the use of SEM (Kline, 2011).

Reliability refers to the reliability of the indicators of a construct that represent a respective latent construct (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In other words, reliability is the degree to which scores within a p articular sample are free from random measurement error (Kline, 2011). Usually the reliability score most often reported is coefficient alpha, more commonly known as Cronbach's alpha. If this consistency is low, it means that the consistency of the items content is very heterogeneous and the total score is not the best possible unit of analysis for a specific measure. If the alpha is high, it means that internal correlation of the items is positive, which is especially useful for latent variables in SEM (Kline, 2011). According to Sung and Mayer (2012), reliability analysis can be conducted for each subscale. This is based on the mean correlation between each pair of items in the subscale in order to meet the minimum Cronbach's Alpha value.

Validity refers to the possibility of a construct to cause covariance among different items. In other words, scores are examined in their capability of measuring a certain construct the way the researcher had previously assumed (Kline, 2011). Basically, validity shows if the results of SEM can be interpreted accurately. There is no single test for construct validity, but rather different facets of it. The most common are (1) criterion-related validity (are sample values large enough to support the explanation of an appreciable amount of variability of a criterion?), (2) convergent validity (are intercorrelations of a set of variables measuring the same construct at least moderate in magnitude?), (3) discrimination validity (are intecorrelations of a set of variables measuring different constructs at least moderate in magnitude?), and (4) content validity (are test items representative of the domains they are supposed to measure?). While the later is usually examined through expert opinions, factor analysis is a common test for convergent and discriminant validity (Kline, 2011).

As particularly the BAB intention construct is a new adaption of previously used scales, a qualitative pre-study, followed by an expert panel including academic specialists as recommended by Churchill Jr. (1979) was employed in order to validate the measurement items and their application for this specific study, followed by a pilot test prior to testing the model.

4.5.1. Qualitative pre-study

For the confirmation of the applicability of the proposed framework in Chapter 3, a qualitative pre-study was held with HKPRs. The technique of semi-structured interviews by the use of convenience sampling was deemed as the most appropriate means for this end. The number of respondents was based on the stagnation of received information (see Chapter 3).

In-depth interviews consequently have taken an important role for this research due to the fact that the study location was Hong Kong, while most related theory had been derived from Western literature and research. It has been widely acknowledged that Western paradigms do not always fully apply to an Asian cultural context (Miike, 2008) and this study had to take note of this fact. The qualitative pre-study was deemed to examine if the identified framework is applicable to the context of Hong Kong or if it had to be modified in order to fit this research. In-depth interviews were an ideal means to succeed in this matter for several reasons.

According to Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2011, p.109), an in-depth interview is a 'one-to-one method of data collection that involves an interviewer and an interviewee discussing specific topics in depth'. Hence, through a high level of interaction among interviewer and interviewee an in-depth interview is not only a simple question and answer exchange, but rather constructs a reality through mutually perceived appearance, identity and personality. Through this deep process of insight in respondents' feelings and perspectives, not only key questions related to a topic can be answered but further questions can emerge (Guion, Diehl & McDonald, 2011). This will be convenient for the purpose of this study as the goal of the qualitative pre-study is to confirm and/or to modify the proposed framework according to the results obtained. Also, a mutually constructed reality can give insight into cultural factors and meanings underlying certain assumptions. As the cultural context of Hong Kong was deemed as important for this study, the co-construction of reality through in-depth interviewing could shed more light on its specific interaction with pre-established theory.

In order to provide the desired data, in-depth interviews typically involve the following key steps of execution (Guion et al., 2011, p.1):

1. Open-ended questions: Questions should possibly begin with 'why' and 'how' in order to guarantee the respondent the necessary freedom to project his own

feelings about the relevant topic. Subsequently, ‘yes or no’ questions should be usually avoided.

2. Semi-structured format: Key or core-questions should be prepared in advance, but the interviewer should follow up emerging issues which are relevant for his/her research.
3. Seeking to understand and interpret: It is essential for the interviewer to clearly understand what is being expressed during the interview and to interpret the findings in the right way. This involves also good listening skills.
4. Recording responses: Audio-recording is the most common practice for storing responses. Notes can be taken also of other things, such as non-verbal behaviors or expressions.

Hennink et al. (2011) add that notes which have been taken during an in-depth interview can be used as new topical probes for subsequent interviews. This does not necessarily change the interview questions but does usually cause small amendments and the addition of notes which can be of help and a guide for the interviewer. This is closely related to the fact that, in addition to the pre-determined questions and points of interest, new issues can emerge through in-depth interviewing.

Semi-structured interviews are organized around a set of predetermined questions (Whiting, 2008), but leave the possibility open for other questions to emerge during the dialogue. Hennink et al. (2011, p. 133) structure the interview into 3 different kinds of questions which usually should be asked in the following order:

1. Opening questions: These questions are used as an ‘ice-breaker’. Usually they are related to broad concepts of the research without involving the core issues directly. The main aim for these questions is to make the interviewee feel at ease.
2. Key questions: Once a certain confidence level is established, questions are asked to explore more details, examples and nuances from the interviewee’s perspective. These questions are highly important and focus on the core issues of the research.
3. Closing questions: As the connection with the interviewee is established, this bond should be diminished slowly and not abruptly. The closing questions are again broader and usually let this feeling fade out. General topics related to the research or the question for future plans are a typical example of this.

With the target population of this research being HKPRs, this study adopted a convenience sampling approach for the qualitative pre-study. Convenience sampling is characterized by a high level of tolerance for different types of interviewees, as long as they fall into the category of the target population (Weiss, 1994). Subcategories within the population are not of major importance, mainly because of the usually limited number of respondents which cannot cover numerous strata. In this case, respondents were openly approached in public places in Hong Kong and asked for their availability to be interviewed if they are permanent residents of the Hong Kong SAR. Convenience sampling was deemed as a proper sampling technique for this research because the target population is residents. Residents are in nature a very heterogeneous stakeholder and the mentioned limited sample size of in-depth interviews is in any case in need of generalization, not being able to cover every sub-cluster of the population.

Also, contrary to quantitative studies, qualitative research focuses on a smaller amount of respondents providing a higher amount of information (Patton, 2002). In order to conduct qualitative research properly, researchers should not work with a quota of respondents in mind but rather focus on reaching a saturation point of information (Mason, 2010). In other words, the number of respondents was determined by when the researcher felt he had achieved his goals, which in this case was the confirmation or modification of the proposed framework and/or measurement items.

In spite of the limited number of respondents in convenience sampling in-depth interviews, findings can be generalized if dealt with properly (Weiss, 1994). Subsequently, respondents can be asked about their own notion of generalizability for their answers, i.e. if they think other members of the same population will be similar to them in opinion. If this is the case, previous literature can be considered and the possible support for the findings may favor generalizability.

As the core characteristics of in-depth interviews have been identified as ideally semi-structured and audio-recorded, this research had adopted this specific pattern. Following common practice, the interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed verbatim (Whiting, 2008). Also, the interviewer made use of a note book in order to record non-vocal notes which were perceived during the interview process. After the interviews had reached a stagnation point of information, the transcribed interview records as well as additional notes taken were analyzed with the research goal of the pre-study in mind. This was done through the meticulous analysis of the obtained qualitative data. Qualitative data analysis is particular in the sense that it combines scientific rigor with the flexibility of art (Hennink et al., 2011). As such, the researcher can make use of established procedures for data analysis, but also needs to comprehend and interpret underlying meanings embedded in culture and human experience. The most common method of dealing with qualitative data is coding, which essentially means to 'link what the respondent says in his or her interview to the concepts and categories that will appear in the report' (Weiss, 1994, p. 154). This process usually includes inductive as well as deductive code development (Hennink et al., 2011). Inductive codes are themes which are raised by the respondents themselves, while deductive codes are based on previous theory. As a model from this research has been established through literature review, deductive codes were mainly derived from the identified variables. This helped to organize the data gathered through the interviews and enforce or question identified categories. Inductive codes were based on new information which could be identified from the data and has eventually added to the previously established theory. Finally, deductive and inductive codes were combined and integrated with the notes taken during the interviews as well as the reviewed literature. As this research has pre-established theory, visual displays of the qualitative data can be put in a relation with the proposed model. As such, results can be compared and the model can be modified accordingly.

Although there is no precise guide applicable to every type of semi-structured interview, there are certain procedures which researchers are suggested to follow

(Clifford, French & Valentine, 2010). Accordingly, a common way of preparing for interviews is to develop a list of themes which will guide the interview process while allowing other themes and related questions to emerge. As a first step, a preliminary interview guide, including broadly aimed sample questions, was thus developed (see Appendix C). On the core of this were several themes (topics) which had previously emerged in literature and were considered for inclusion in the framework. In order not to bias the respondents reactions to these, anyhow, some more general topics were included and questions were formed as general as possible. It is indeed common practice for semi-structured interviews to start with very general questions and narrow down on t opics which emerge throughout (Arksey & Knight, 1999). The original themes included, based on the previously discussed literature, were 'Hong Kong - life', 'relationship with Hong Kong', 'Asia's World City', 'Hong Kong Tourism Board', 'Hong Kong identity' and 'promotion of Hong Kong'. Examples of general questions on the respective topics were 'Do you feel attached to Hong Kong?', 'What do you know about 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City?'' and 'How would you promote HK and its people?' (see Appendix C). Two sections, named 'issues' and 'suggestions' were added to the interview guide in order to give space for further investigation and development of new themes.

On the whole, a total of 15 interviews with HKPRs were conducted from October 2013 to the end of February 2014. Initially the technique of convenience sampling was employed, but the results of the first interviews suggested that the population of HKPRs is highly heterogeneous in terms of demographic factors and this may influence their brand perceptions and attitudes. In terms of generation difference one respondents suggested that '*In my generation because we had the same values, study hard, get a good job, have a family, take a mortgage, try to have success with the family and career. But the new generation, with the high accommodation prices, they maybe say we can't afford that. But maybe even the generation before me*, *they had more access. To tell you a story I always tell my friends, for professionals in Hong Kong, I mean architects, doctors, those who graduated in the 1970s they can live in the midlevels, a prestige area in Hong Kong. Those graduate in the 80s, they live in the good private estates, like Whampoa Garden. Those graduated in the 90s, they can still live in big estates, but not in the city, New Territories, like Shatin. Those graduated in the 2000s, we don't know where they live*.' Other respondents suggested that even geographical location of residence might be a factor to consider: '*If you look at the election of the district or legislative council, the more radical political parties get more votes in the Northern districts (North of New Territories). Against China, against the Hong Kong government. Hong Kong island is more conservative, you can see that they may have some statistics about pro-government, they get more votes in HK island and the Kowloon Area. The more anti-government, radical types of parties get more votes in the New Territories.'* Although it is not a goal of this research to compare different subsections of the population based on demographic factors, a new sampling technique which could take these into account needed to be employed. Subsequently, convenience sampling was abandoned in order to adopt a purposeful sampling design. Purposeful sampling is a more suitable technique to capture the heterogeneity within a certain population (Maxwell, 2005). The need for maximum variance is emphasized by the usually small amount of respondents in qualitative research (Miles & Haberman, 1994).

In its most basic, purposeful sampling refers to select participants according to the specific needs of a study (Morse, 1991). As such, the researcher tries to capture as much information possible from the different segments within the population which suggest being significantly different. As in purposeful sampling sample sizes are flexible and highly depend on the amount of information gathered from single cases, it is highly helpful to ask subjects if they can recommend other key candidates for data collection. This is commonly known as snowballing (Marshall, 1996), and has been used for the selection of last 14 respondents based on age, gender, district of residence and profession, as suggested by the first interviewees.

For guaranteeing the validity of the research findings, two methods of data validation were used as proposed by Maxwell (2005). First (1), the collection of 'rich' data. This refers to the detail in which data is collected. In order to capture the maximum amount of information, data was transcribed verbatim and additional field notes, dealing with visual or contextual data, were taken. Second (2), respondent validation was used. This is a valuable tool to avoid cultural misunderstandings, which may be a major risk due to the research location and the researcher's background. Respondent validation basically refers to looking for feedback on the obtained data from the studied people (Maxwell, 2005). This has been done systematically throughout the interview process as well with two former interviewees as after the coding process was completed.

Once the desired amount of data was obtained, data was coded into themes related to the proposed framework. Deductive and inductive coding was processed. Inductive codes refer to new themes which have emerged from the respondents, while deductive coding refers to the codes which had previously emerged through the literature (Hennink et al., 2011). Data analysis was processed through the qualitative research software NVivo10 and the results are shown as follows.

4.5.1.1. Demographics of qualitative pre-study respondents

The stagnation of information was reached after 15 in-depth interviews with HKPRs (see Table 5.1.). Of the participants, 9 were male and 6 were female. Regarding the age, the spectrum ranged from a minimum of 18 years to a maximum of 52 years. The average age of respondents was 32,3 years. Regarding profession, 7 of the respondents were students, while the others were employed in various industries in Hong Kong. 3 of the respondents were resident in Hong Kong Island, while 6 resided in Kowloon, and 6 in the New Territories and Outlying Islands. Interviews varied in length between a minimum of 21 and a maximum of 56 minutes. The average length for an interview was 33, 4 minutes. Finally, two of the respondents were re-approached after data analysis for respondent validation.

Table 4.9. Respondent profiles for qualitative pre-study

Number	Gender	Age	Area of Residence	Profession	Length (mins)
1	M	31	HK Island	Office clerk	25
2	F	21	HK Island	Student	34
3	F	21	Kowloon	Student	32

4	F	45	Kowloon	Student	50
5	M	52	Kowloon	Construction Sector	28
6	M	44	HK Island	Banking Sector	56
7	F	18	New Territories	Student	21
8	M	43	Kowloon	Housing Sector	43
9	M	21	New Territories	Student	25
10	F	42	New Territories	Education Sector	26
11	M	21	New Territories	Student	27
12	F	46	Kowloon	Secretary	34
13	M	18	Kowloon	Student	32
14	M	33	Outlying Islands	Tutor	39
15	M	29	New Territories	Hotel Sector	29

4.5.1.2. Applicability of the framework to the context of Hong Kong

After the completion of the interviews and relevant data analysis, the framework proposed (see Chapter 3) has been found as applicable to the context of Hong Kong. Nonetheless, some amendments to the anticipated measurement items are proposed based on the research findings and suggestions for demographic segmentation are taken in account. The following section explains the results of the qualitative pre-study based on the dimensions which have been previously suggested and additional features which have emerged throughout the interviews.

Most participants agreed that Hong Kong locals would generally be willing to actively participate in brand development and implementation. Especially in terms of participating in brand promotion, festivals and events related to 'Asia's World City' were found to be a platform desired by the majority. A respondent suggested that '*I remember, back in the 1970s there was something called the 'Hong Kong Festival'. It was right after* *the Cultural Revolution in China which ended in 1976. The Hong Kong Government wanted to build up people's self-esteem so they had some promotion campaigns in every district of Hong Kong, like the lion dance, family gathering activities, drawing competition for primary school pupils, lots of activities. Made by the British Government, we had lots of activities in every district of Hong Kong*'.

The annually held 'Fire Dragon Event' was also mentioned as a festival '*highly dependent on local participation*', while also beneficial for tourists. Locals are asked to show a traditional fire dragon dance on t he streets and apparently participation and enthusiasm has been high. One respondent stated to '*have participated in some of the activities. For example the wine and dine festival. Those activities are very good. They make lots of effort for attracting people to come here*', while another said that '*I do something on my own. In central MTR station, you see lots of tourists from China, Western countries, Japan. One common thing, every one of them is reading maps, find a way. I want to help these guys. I don't approach everybody but once I see that their face looks so frustrated because I think it's good for HK. When i travel to other countries, a lot of people help me in such way. I almost help 10-20 a months. I told you that one of my friends knew about this and agreed; now she set up an organization just for help with a patch plus language, showing that we are ambassadors*'.

In terms of brand development, most respondents would be willing to help but were not aware of any possibility to do so. Both online platforms, 'Faces of Hong Kong' and 'myHK2020', were totally unknown to the interviewees, while almost everyone was able to mention the slogan and/or logo of the brand. Participants mentioned that '*locals* *are not really aware of the possibility to help, but I am sure they would be willing to be ambassadors if they would somehow be made aware'*. One particular respondent mentioned that he had a personal interest in the brand, but '*I think the tourism board puts most of the effort into the Western or Chinese market, not the locals. Even if I am interested, I don't know much about the tourism board doing anything to involve locals in Hong Kong.'*

It was thus apparent that the online campaigns which have been launched during the last years had not found a wide audience. This is anyhow related to psychological empowerment and will be discussed later. The interviewees suggested that much more local effort in brand development would be put in if audiences would be targeted through social media, television or the daily local newspapers. Further suggestions included publicly held competitions, such as photo or drawing contests. Promotional items or incentives as a price were mentioned as useful, suggesting the locals' willingness to use them. Nonetheless, it was also suggested that '*if they want to promote Hong Kong, locals would like participate, even if there is no souvenir or compensation, they still would engage*.'

In the specific context of Hong Kong, the local culture was also mentioned to be favorable to locals showing BAB. A respondent mentioned that '*because of our traditional Chinese mind set, we think about the origins of our identity. If everyone could participate and have a bit, the brand would be very successful on a long term*'. Locals were also found to consider it as '*personal responsibility to promote Hong Kong and to attract more tourists to know about Hong Kong. This is an effort which can pay in return* *to benefit Hong Kong and society in general*". In addition to BAB, also the other factors which had been identified as possible antecedents and their relationship to BAB in the context of Hong Kong have been explored in the interviews. This will be explained in the following sections.

The majority of the respondents has shown to be familiar with at least some of the visual elements of the brand and had seen or heard advertisements related to 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'. Most of the later where anyhow targeted at tourists and advertisements for local participation were almost totally unknown. Considering the relatively high level of brand awareness, most of the respondents had a clear attitude towards the brand, confirming brand attitude as an important factor related to brand perception and brand behavioral intentions.

Participants' attitudes towards the brand were rather mixed due to several factors. One respondent summed it up as '*if you want to make it more quantitative, I would grade it as 5-6/10*'. Locals with a better attitude towards the brand were also found to be more susceptive to BAB. One respondent stated that '*in order to do something you really need to agree to the brand values and like you city. Those are the two core things that would push locals to participate. Value should be something positive. If you like the part of Hong Kong that is promoted then you would participate*'. The combination of brand attitude and place attachment has therefore emerged as a possible antecedent of residents' BAB. The interview finding regarding place attachment will anyhow be discussed in the later following sections.

In addition to the brand values, the visual elements of the brand have been shown to be susceptible to most criticism. One interviewee remembered that '*when this logo first came out, there was a lot of criticism about it. The design was not good or anything... but when time went by people started to accept and get used to it. There was criticism at the beginning from the local people, the press and the newspapers. They spent, I think, a lot of money on hiring some designers to design this and the people said it's not looking very good'. The issue was also raised that the logo had been mocked by the locals recently, being changed into the Chinese characters for 'Universal suffrage' during a local protest and, with some irony, that the 'dragon looks more like a worm rather than a dragon*'.

The 'Asia's World City' slogan was generally better accepted, but some respondents criticized the perceived lack of originality and generic message. Nonetheless, the competitive spirit of the locals was felt as being well represent by naming Hong Kong a world city. In extremis, one participant stated that '*Hong Kong should be promoted as THE world city, not only Asia's world city*'.

In addition to be related to BAB, government trust and psychological empowerment have also emerged to be strictly related to the resident's brand attitudes. The focus on the promoted brand values also suggests a relationship to self-congruity. These findings related to these 3 concepts will thus be discussed next.

The concept of identity representation has emerged as central when residents form their attitude and behavioral intention towards a destination brand. All of the respondents agreed on the notion that Hong Kong has a very distinct and unique identity, being heavily influenced by British colonial and traditional Chinese culture.

Although most of the respondents underlined the belief that Hong Kongers are Chinese, the need to represent the local identity within the brand as distinct for China was mentioned as highly important. One participant stated that '*we need something special to promote Hong Kong to other people, unique. You need identity and the transition from a British colony to a SAR of China is unique in the whole world. There are lots of changes in culture, in the political system, in people's perceptions. There are many issues to talk about when considering the unique identity of Hong Kong. If we still want to promote Hong Kong as a consumers' paradise or a world class city, I think that's outdated*'.

The multi-cultural mix of identity was further emphasized as a positive asset to promote and if this feature was perceived as lacking, the attitude towards the brand was also more negative. When there was a perception that 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' was too much focused as promoting Hong Kong as completely Chinese, brand attitude was generally very bad. One participant stated that the dragon logo was '*not suitable, Hong Kong is an international city and the dragon reminds of China too much*'. Another summed up his self-perception by stating that '*I am just a Hong Kong person and at the same time I am Chinese. I was a British colonial, so I think the multi-culture and the mixed culture makes Hong Kong very unique. You can't find a place that is so unique in the whole world. This I want to see promoted*'.

Respondents also mentioned that Hong Kongers are generally very concerned about how they are perceived in foreign countries, i.e. how their image is projected abroad. It was suggested that, if a brand is promoting the local identity the way that residents desire, they would also be more willing to show active BAB in regard. In regard, one participant noted that '*when we go abroad we want to have a good image. Generally, Hong Kong locals care a lot about opinions of other countries. It would be better to promote the cultural part of Hong Kong.' Another stated that 'if our culture would be on the core of this brand, we would be more engaged for sure*'.

Psychological empowerment was generally felt to be low by respondents who were most critical of the brand. On the contrary, locals who had participated in some of the brand's events, or knew about the possibility to do so, were generally more favorable of 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'.

Generally, most respondents were anyhow not aware of the issues surrounding the brand, although general interest was shown. The feeling of being empowered in brand matters was also not widely present. One respondent said that '*we locals would for sure like to participate in these initiatives, but we don't know we can*'. Another participant said that the government simply '*did not inform us that we can*'. Interestingly, one of the interviewees had personal experience in working with the tourism board, but had never heard about any initiatives to involve locals. Subsequently, she stated that '*I think when it goes to the tourism board; there are lots of surveys done every year, the annual report. I think for involving residents anyhow, they have not done enough. They only involve practitioners in the hospitality field, such as the hotel association. The annual reports are only for those who practice hospitality*'.

One particular respondent even stated that many residents dislike the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand due to the fact that '*the government just put some TV ads and slogans on the streets, but they didn't organize too many activities, especially for families.*

The just give you, but they don't give you too much opportunity to be involved. That's why people don't like it'. This was confirmed by another interviewee with the notion that '*most of HK people think that the government doesn't want to listen to us. That's why people go on the streets. We want to help but the government doesn't accept opinions opposite to theirs. We don't feel empowered really*', and '*the government too often promotes things from the perspective of a parent*'. It is noteworthy to say that the lack of psychological empowerment was generally an indicator of negative brand attitudes and also the lack of willingness to help with promotion or development.

On the contrary, when festivals such as the 'Tai Hang Fire Dragon Dance', the 'Lunar New Year's Parade' or the 'Bun Festival', which rely mainly on local participation, were related to the brand, respondents showed a more positive attitude towards it. Some respondents also praised the tourism board for being accessible and that '*if you want to obtain any information from them, you can access their website and get it*'. Anyhow, the feeling of being empowered was also being found to be strongly associated with trust in the relevant establishment, i.e. public trust in destination brand authorities.

In addition to psychological empowerment, public trust in destination branding authorities has been mentioned as intrinsically linked to brand evaluation and behavioral intentions. First, this is related to the purpose of the brand. In other words, participants have shown to be highly concerned about why the brand has been developed, i.e. who is being targeted and in how far this impacts life in Hong Kong. One participant explained that '*locals care a lot about how the tourists, particularly inbound tourists, are affecting our daily lives. For instance, we need to consider the number of visitors we can host. As a* *typical citizen we care a lot about these aspects'*. Another said that *'with no discrimination, if locals know that this campaign benefits someone they are biased to, of course they would not like it*'.

A main concern was that the brand is mainly targeting the ever-growing number of mainland Chinese tourists. A respondent highlighted that '*recently the chief executive of the tourism board has announced a plan about new tourism policies, so some of the hot topics are whether or not the government will still continue the policy on receiving mainland tourists, whether the amount will be too much and affecting some issues like the baby milk powder, parallel goods and even matters of transportation, such as overcrowding, waiting time for buses*'. Many locals suggested that they were not favoring, or even less promoting and developing, a brand which, according to them, targets mostly mainland tourists. The impression was often given that 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' '*is quite concentrating to promote Hong Kong to mainland China. Because tourists come mostly from mainland, the tourism board mostly targets them. I anyhow think that the tourism board could make more efforts to promote the city to tourists which are from other places*'. When there was anyhow agreement with the target population, responses to the brand were more positive. An example constitutes one respondent stating that '*they promote well for tourists, not for locals. As far as I know, they target mainland Chinese a lot. I think that's enough*'.

Second, the fact that the brand is mostly considered as an '*official government act*', general trust in the branding authorities on their possibility to benefit Hong Kong was also found to be important. Some respondents were also concerned about political issues related to the brand and related risks. An example therefore is the statement that '*we are getting more and more politically sensitive. I would first consider if the brand is really meaningful and evaluate the risks of participation, such as political sensitivity, being recorded...*'. Another said that '*people don't trust the government now. As we don't trust, if we hear its coming from them, we don't want to be involved*'. Distrust was also shown towards a relatively recent locals-targeting branding initiative called 'Hong Kong is my home'. One local told that '*locals don't like it. Many people are questioning political reasons behind the government launching this campaign. Why was it launched?*'. Interestingly, respondents also demanded to know what the brand is going to effectively contribute to the economy of Hong Kong. One stated that '*if the tourism board can really tell us that they are doing something that can bring us millions of income, then we pay more attention about what we are going to do (for them)*'. This is related to both, psychological empowerment and public trust. Some respondents had anyhow felt that the tourism board had done a great job with the brand, and that '*the videos online can really make you proud to be a Hong Kong local*'. As a consequence, there was a positive attitude show towards the brand and most of the related respondents also declared their willingness to be 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' ambassadors.

Place attachment was frequently mentioned as being an important factor related to brand perception and subsequent BAB. Originally, it was hypothesized that place attachment could only moderate the relationship among brand attitude and BAB intention (see Chapter 3), but according to the findings of the pre-study it is assumed that high and low levels of place attachment can moderate the framework as a whole.

Generally, respondents who were found to express more attachment to Hong Kong also had much stronger perceptions about the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand and were more concerned about the branding of their city. One respondent stated that '*whether or not I am concerned about promoting Hong Kong is quite subjective and not so much related to quality of life, accommodation, work and consumption power. It* is *more about my sense of belonging and identity*'. Another stated that '*more place attachment you have, more skeptical you will be looking at the brand. If you don't feel attached to Hong Kong, it's just a promotion like any other*'.

It was apparent that respondents who felt very attached to Hong Kong where also more critical towards branding efforts. Respondents who generally felt dissatisfied or indifferent with their lives in Hong Kong were mostly not really concerned about the relevant branding efforts and showed more neutral attitudes towards the brand and less concern about empowerment, congruity and trust. The intentions for BAB in participants with seemingly lower place attachment were also suggested to be relatively low. It is thus assumed that place attachment can moderate the relationship among all proposed variables in the framework and will be considered as such in the analysis of the final survey.

4.5.1.3. Amendment of measurement items and expert panel

Several amendments of the previously proposed measurement items (see Chapter 4) have been made based on the results and findings of the qualitative pre-study. The items for measuring residents' destination brand psychological empowerment and residents' place attachment have been kept intact, while the items for the other constructs have been slightly modified.

The items to measure residents' destination brand BAB intention have been slightly adapted to the results of the pre-study. Based on the interviews, the major obstacle for residents showing BAB intentions was found as the lack of awareness regarding possibilities of effective participation in development and implementation. Although awareness is not the specific focus of this study, some amendments are suggested to the measurement items in order to bridge this gap. The wordings 'Given the chance' were added to every BAB intention items (see Table 5.2.), expect those which are specifically talking about plans and expectations, as both of these concepts presuppose awareness of effective possibilities.

Table 4.10. Measurement items for residents' BAB intentions after interviews

Modified Scale
Given the chance, I would recommend to other people they would support the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
Given the chance, I would talk directly with other people about my experience with the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
Given the chance, I would suggest to others that they should attend 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' events
Given the chance, I would write about the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand online so that my contacts would get to know this brand
Given the chance, I would pass information about the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand to my friends online
Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand online to make sure all my contacts would know

Modified Scale
Given the chance, I would participate in the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
I plan to participate in future 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
I expect to participate in future 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' brand related promotional events and activities
Given the chance, I would contribute to the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand's development
I plan to participate in future 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' brand development
I expect to participate in future 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' brand development
Given the chance, I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material frequently
Given the chance, I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material whenever appropriate
Given the chance, I would use 'Hong Kong –Asia's World City' promotional material in the near future

Next, the measurement items for residents' destination brand attitude were adapted to the findings. The previously found items were deemed as appropriate, but the concern of residents on how Hong Kong is being promoted by the brand in their evaluation was not considered beforehand. Thus, one item was added to the brand attitude construct, namely 'I like the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong' (see Table 5.3.).

Table 4.11. Measurement items for residents' destination brand attitude after interviews

Modified Scale
I like the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' is a good brand
I have a positive impression of the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
I find the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand very personable
I like the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong

Also the construct measuring residents' destination brand self-congruity was adapted to the interviews. The fact that the interviewees had shown concern on how their collective identity as Hong Kong locals is being represented to the outside world, stimulated the inclusion of a new measurement item, namely 'The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand represents the Hong Kong people appropriately' (see Table 5.4.).

Table 4.12. Measurement items for residents' destination brand self-congruity after interviews

Modified Scale
I can completely identify with the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand is a lot like me
The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand reflects what I am
The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand is exactly how I see myself
If I was a brand, I would be 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City'
The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' image corresponds to my self-image in many respects
Through the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand I can express what I find important in life
The 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand represents the Hong Kong people appropriately

Last, the measurement items for residents' public trust in destination brand authorities were modified according to the findings. While the previously proposed items were maintained, interviewees had shown concerns what kind of tourists the brand might attract, and if the brand generally benefits the Hong Kong locals. Thus, two items were added, namely (1) 'Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand are attracting the most beneficial category of tourists to Hong Kong', and (2) 'Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' have launched the brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong' (see Table 5.5.).

Table 4.13. Measurement items for residents' public trust in destination brand authorities after interviews

Modified Scale
You can generally trust decisions made by institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand
You can generally trust the people who run the institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand to do what is right
Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong- Asia's World City' brand can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them
Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand are attracting the most beneficial category of tourists to Hong Kong
Institutions responsible for the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' have launched the brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong

In order to further assess the face validity of the proposed measurement items, an expert panel with a total of seven research experts in the field of destination branding, marketing and community involvement has been held (see Table 5.6.). Expert panels are commonly used to judge the applicability of measurement items and to suggest item amendments (Hung & Petrick, 2009). Experts were provided with a form containing all items after the interview amendments. Five point Likert scales for 'applicability' as well as 'representativeness' of every item were provided, as well as an extra column asking for 'additional comments'. All forms were returned to the researcher after a three week period from February 26 to March 19 2014.

Table 4.14. Profile of experts consulted for face validity

Nr.	Position	Areas of research expertise
1	Assistant Professor	• Tourism Marketing • Restaurant and Foodservice Marketing • Relationship Marketing • Destination Marketing
2	Professor	• Tourist Behaviour • Cultural Tourism • Tourist Time Budgets and Movement Patterns • Tourism Marketing
3	Professor	• Tourism Marketing • Tourist Behavior • Pricing • Cruising and Golf
4	Assistant Professor	• Long-term Development and Seasonality in Tourism • Strategic Management of Network-based Industries • Entrepreneurship in Tourism and Hospitality • Consumer Surveys and Market Research
5	Assistant Professor	• China Tourism and Hotel • Hospitality and Tourism Marketing • Consumer Behavior • Tourism Planning

Nr.	Position	Areas of research expertise
6	Associate Professor	• Tourist Behavior and Psychology • Destination Marketing • Tourism Marketing in the Asia-Pacific Area • Tourism Knowledge Development
7	Assistant Professor	• Heritage and Tourism • Politics and Tourism • Sustainable Tourism • Community-based Tourism • Pro-poor Tourism

As a result of the expert panel, additional amendments of the previously proposed items have been made (see Table 5.7.).

Table 4.15. Amendments proposed by expert panel and actions taken

Remarks	Action taken
Risk of positive response bias	Two items in the construct 'residents' destination brand ambassador behavior' have been reverse-coded
Brand development is not clearly explained	Items containing the wordings 'brand development' have been modified by adding examples of effective brand development
A brand is not a state government agency	Items measuring 'residents' destination brand psychological empowerment' have been modified by replacing 'state government agency' with 'government program'
Lack of clarity regarding authorities responsible for the brand	Items measuring 'residents' public trust in destination brand authorities' have been modified by replacing 'institutions responsible for the Hong Kong - Asia's World City brand' with 'The Hong Kong Tourism Board'

Remarks	Action taken
Residents don't focus on recreation/leisure activities	Items measuring 'residents' place attachment' have been modified by eliminating 'recreation/leisure' from the activities that they enjoy
Risk of multicollinearity between 'Residents' destination brand self-congruity' and 'Residents' place attachment'	Some items in these two constructs were found similar and risk of multicollinearity was highlighted. Nonetheless, residents' place attachment will be used as a moderator and thus there is no risk of conflicting with residents' self-congruity
Residents' brand awareness	It was highlighted that the framework does not include brand awareness measurements. The qualitative pre-study has suggested that this is not necessary as residents are generally sufficiently aware of the brand
Open-ended question	In order to gain more information about eventual antecedents of residents' destination BAB behavior, experts suggested to add an open-ended question to the survey

First, one of the experts highlighted the risk of positive response bias in the BAB intentions construct. Positive response bias refers to the way the respondents use the proposed scales (Ong & van Dulmen, 2007). More accurately, it refers to scales which might lead respondents to endorse or say yes to all questions. According to Ong and van Dulmen (2007), a common way of solving this issue is 'reverse coding'. In this procedure, scale items are included which reverse the direction of the content (for example items being formed in the negative, e.g. 'I don't like...'). Following the suggestions of the experts, two items of the BAB construct, which were found to be highly similar to other items used in the same variable, have been reverse coded (see appendix, final questionnaire).

Next, the experts noticed that no examples for 'brand development' were provided in the questionnaire. Subsequently, examples of effective brand development have been added to the relevant BAB intention constructs (e.g. e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities). More clarifications have been suggested by the experts who have resulted in further amendments. The wording 'state government agency' in the psychological empowerment construct has been replaced with 'government program', as this is more fitting to the context of branding. In the public trust construct, the ambiguous 'institutions responsible for the Hong Kong - Asia's World City brand' has been replaced with a clearer 'The Hong Kong Tourism Board'. Last, the 'place attachment' construct has been slightly modified by eliminating the specific 'recreation/leisure' in the measurement items, as the experts had suggested that this is not a priority for residents.

Next, two more suggestions were given in which amendments were not found necessary. The risk for multicollinearity among the 'self-congruity' and 'place attachment' construct was highlighted. This is anyhow no major concern as the 'place attachment' variable functions mere as a moderator in the proposed model. Also, the experts noticed that brand awareness is not measured by the proposed model. No action was taken in response, as the qualitative pre-study has shown that generally residents have a sufficient level of brand awareness to truthfully respond to the survey questions.

Finally, an open-ended question was added to the survey following the suggestion of the experts, namely 'What would motivate you to support the 'Hong Kong - Asia's

World City' brand in terms of brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) and promotion (e.g. participate in promotional events and share related information): 你會因為什麽而支持“香港·亞洲國際都會”的品牌建設（例如表達相關意見，參加相關在線活動）和推廣（例如參加推廣活動和分享相關信息)'.

After the consultation of the expert panel, the questionnaire has been translated into Traditional Cantonese Chinese by a n ative-speaking postgraduate student of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Both, the finalized English and Chinese (where applicable) version have been given for a last round of opinion to 11 pos tgraduate tourism students of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University who are proficient in both English and Chinese. This has resulted in additional minor grammatical amendments, especially regarding the Cantonese version. As a result of this, the final questionnaire in English and Cantonese was proposed (see appendix).

4.5.2. Pilot test

After the finalization of the questionnaire, pilot data was collected with the help of the Toluna online survey agency (n=199). Commonly used in the process of SEM, a pilot study mainly focuses on pre-testing the research tools in order to detect whether or not instruments and methods fit to the overall study and if there are major shortcomings in the questionnaire design (Oppenheim, 1992). If any weaknesses in the questionnaire are identified, these can be corrected before launching the main survey (Sarantakos, 2005). Although relatively costly, a pilot test can thus avoid wasting effort on u ninterpretable results in the overall study (Oppenheim, 1992).

The online questionnaire was programmed from 5-7th May 2014 and by the 8th of May both, the English and Chinese version were available for the researcher to check before being finalized for the launch. After consulting two native Cantonese speakers and through meticulous controlling of the English version, the final questionnaire was launched online by the 10th of May. The sampling design of the pilot test followed the same criteria as the main study. As participation in online panels through the survey agency resulted in benefits for the respondents, the normally low response rate of online surveys (Hung & Law, 2011) was not an issue. By the 15th of May 2014, 199 completed questionnaires were handed in SPSS format to the researcher for conducting the pilot test.

4.5.2.1. Data screening

After obtaining the results of the pilot test, data screening was conducted in order to determine the quality for further analysis. Kline (2011) proposes a list of problems to be screened for before conducting a SEM analysis, among which (1) outliers, (2) missing data, and (3) normality rank as the most important.

Outliers are scores which are different from the rest. There can be univariate outliers, i.e. scores which differ greatly from the mean of a single variable, or multivariate outliers, i.e. extreme scores on two or more variables (Kline, 2011). At issue is thus the representativeness of the population (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Following the most common method, descriptives and box plots in SPSS 20.0 were applied on the dataset to detect possible outliers (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Although some cases were found, it was decided not to delete them from the pilot test as in certain cases they can be beneficial.

Specifically in residents, which are generally known to be a relatively heterogeneous population, outliers can highlight particular characteristics of a population which would be ignored by their deletion (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Also, the company which was used has a policy of not accepting 'straightliners', i.e. respondents who fill the whole survey on the same level of the proposed scales (e.g. every item is rated as 'strongly agree').

Next, the data was scanned for missing values and all 199 surveys were found to be complete. Missing data is common in research and normally less than 5% in a single variable is not seen as problematic. Indeed, most data loss is deemed as ignorable or accidental (Kline, 2011). Unfortunately, there is no universal method to establish if the data loss is ignorable or of a systematic nature but normally this is done through ad hoc procedures. The most common are (1) available case methods (analyze only the available data), (2) single-imputation methods (replace each missing score with a single calculated score), (3) model-based imputation (creating more than one score for each missing item) and (4) a special form of full Maximum Likelihood estimation (applied only to raw data files and does not delete cases). Anyhow, the policy of the online survey company hired was that the survey had to be fully completed by the respondent in order to receive the benefit. It was thus guaranteed that the data would not contain any missing values. Nonetheless, this was re-examined in SPSS 20.0 and found to be true, which is highly beneficial for data analysis as the treatment of missing data is complicated (Kline, 2011). As a result, no incomplete cases had to be removed from the dataset. Finally, the data was checked for normality. It was found that the data does not critically violate assumptions of normality (Boomsma, 1983; Muthén & Kaplan; 2011). The next section illustrates the respondents' demographic information.

Table 4.16. Descriptive statistics for main constructs in pilot test

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	CR	Kurtosis	CR
att1 I like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	5.25	1.085	-.816	-4.733	1.145	3.363
att2"Hong Kong- Asia's World City" is a good brand	5.27	1.085	-.691	-4.011	.367	1.070
att3 I have a positive impression of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	5.10	1.106	-.563	-3.268	.221	0.643
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	5.09	1.081	-.607	-3.522	.556	1.621
att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	5.34	1.121	-.685	-3.972	.296	0.862
bab1 Given the chance, I would recommend to other people they would support the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	5.11	1.048	-.595	-3.455	.159	0.465
bab2 Given the chance, I would talk directly with other people about my experience with the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	5.00	1.128	-.469	-2.721	.309	0.902
bab3 Given the chance, I would suggest to others that they should attend "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions)	5.15	1.056	-.321	-1.864	.120	0.349

bab4 Given the chance, I would write about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" online so that my internet-contacts would get to know this brand	4.83	1.239	-.410	-2.380	-.117	-0.341
bab5 Given the chance, I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online	4.85	1.261	-.394	-2.286	-.087	-0.253
bab6 Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online to make sure my internet-contacts would know	4.79	1.199	-.306	-1.776	.258	0.753
bab7 I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions)	4.84	1.172	-.415	-2.407	.028	0.080
bab8 I don't expect to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions)	4.11	1.410	-.045	-.262	-.429	-1.251
bab9 Given the chance, I would contribute to the "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand's development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)	4.82	1.051	-.248	-1.438	-.334	-0.973

bab10 I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)	4.75	1.192	-.279	-1.619	-.239	-0.696
bab11 I don't expect to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)	4.00	1.348	-.075	-.435	-.211	-0.616
bab12 Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" promotional material frequently	4.51	1.184	-.276	-1.602	.026	0.075
bab13 Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" promotional material whenever appropriate	4.82	1.136	-.453	-2.629	.360	1.050
bab14 Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" promotional material in the near future	4.63	1.164	-.188	-1.092	.337	0.982
con1 I can identify with the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	5.26	1.006	-1.055	-6.124	1.970	5.743
con2 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a lot like me	4.49	1.158	-.166	-.964	.277	0.808
con3 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand reflects what I am	4.57	1.103	-.187	-1.084	.065	0.189
con4 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is how I see myself	4.51	1.091	-.290	-1.685	.037	0.109
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be "Hong Kong- Asia's World City"	4.56	1.157	-.221	-1.283	.052	0.151

con6 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	4.53	1.213	-.205	-1.192	.068	0.199
con7 Through the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand I can express what I find important in life	4.60	1.206	-.442	-2.566	.283	0.825
con8 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand represents the local people appropriately	4.91	1.154	-.310	-1.799	.073	0.214
emp1 I feel I have a pretty good understanding regarding the issues surrounding the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.66	1.203	-.439	-2.549	-.015	-0.044
emp2 I want to have as much as possible in influencing a government program like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.76	1.102	-.218	-1.266	.019	0.057
emp3 People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting programs like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.90	1.066	-.010	-.057	-.350	-1.021
emp4 There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand funds are spent	4.92	1.039	.125	.724	-.530	-1.544
emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the outcome of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.87	1.146	-.097	-.564	-.519	-1.514

tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the Hong Kong Tourism Board	4.69	1.415	-.751	-4.355	.035	0.101
tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the Hong Kong Tourism Board	4.52	1.403	-.690	-4.003	.061	0.177
tru3 The Hong Kong Tourism Board can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them	4.27	1.496	-.300	-1.739	-.447	-1.304
tru4 The Hong Kong Tourism Board is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists to Hong Kong	4.36	1.527	-.508	-2.947	-.212	-0.618
tru5 The Hong Kong Tourism Board has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong	4.67	1.378	-.648	-3.760	.339	0.988

4.5.2.2. Demographics of respondents

Within 5 days from the initial launch of the online panel, 199 valid questionnaires were returned (see Table 5.7.). The screening of the demographic profiles of the pilot test respondents is a necessary step to identify salient characteristics, as well as investigate the success of the proposed quota sampling (see Chapter 4). The demographics of the pilot test respondents were thus compared to the quotas which were previously proposed based on the Hong Kong Census.

With 95% of Hongkongese residents being ethnically of Chinese origin, it was expected that the Traditional Chinese version of the online panel would be more frequently chosen. Indeed, 96.5% of the respondents have opted for this language, with only 3.5% making use of the English version. This is largely reflective of the general population of Hong Kong residents. Next, gender plays an important role in this research as it was identified as a segmentation tool for the respondents. With a ratio of 0.943 males to 1 female (The Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013), the female population in Hong Kong is slightly higher than the male. The quotas of the pilot respondents sufficiently reflect this trend, with 59.3% of female and 40.7% of male respondents.

Most of the respondents were in the age group of 25-34 years (35.7%), followed by 18-24 years (32.7%). A total of 31.7% of the respondents were older than 35 years, including 10.6% of respondents among 45-54 years of age. Although the respondents were slightly younger than the average population of Hong Kong residents (see Chapter 3), this was foreseen due to the nature of online panels, which generally target younger populations of internet users. Nonetheless, the number of respondents of 45 years or above was satisfactory, taken the circumstances into consideration. Last, the geographical distribution of respondents was investigated as this was found to be an important segmentation tool for this study. The pilot respondents result as 17.7% living in Hong Kong Island, 27.1% in Kowloon and 55.8% in the New Territories and Outlying Islands. This suggests that the respondents were fairly distributed according to the real population distribution in Hong Kong and overall representation, based on the characteristics chosen, was deemed as adequate.

Table 4.17. Demographics of pilot study respondents

Items	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Language	English	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Traditional Chinese	192	96.5	96.5	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	100.0	
Gender	Male	81	40.7	40.7	40.7
	Female	118	59.3	59.3	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	100.0	
Age	18-24	65	32.7	32.7	32.7
	25-34	71	35.7	35.7	68.3
	35-44	42	21.1	21.1	89.4
	45-54	21	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	100.0	
Area of residency	Hong Kong Island	34	17.1	17.1	17.1
	Kowloon	54	27.1	27.1	44.2
	New Territories and Outlying Islands	111	55.8	55.8	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	100.0	

4.5.2.3. Principal Component Analysis

Factor analysis was used in order to define underlying structures among the variables in the analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2010), starting off with Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Contrary to Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), PCA does not require a priori hypotheses about factor-indicator correspondence or even a number of factors (Kline, 2011). Another advantage of using PCA is that it is highly effective in data reduction for complex and large data sets (Hubert, Rousseeuw, & Vanden Branden, 2005) and explaining the same amount of variance with a fewer variables (Suhr, 2005) , while EFA is more concerned with identifying a number of latent variables and underlying factor structures (Suhr, 2005). Another similar and increasingly popular method is Principal Axis Factoring (PAF). As the number of latent variables has been identified through theory and measurement items with reliable Cronbach alpha values were adapted from previous studies (see Chapter 4), PCA was deemed as a more effective method for this study. Also, the overall sample size of over 600 respondents for the main study can be deemed as large, which is another reason to opt for a PCA approach. Anyhow, it is important to notice that the results of EFA, PAF, and PCA methods are often similar (Shur, 2005; Warner, 2012).

Hair Jr. et al. (2010) state that the minimum sample size of 50 is needed for factor analysis and the sample needs to have more observations than variables contained. The sample size of 199 was thus deemed as adequate for PCA. Also, the proposed model needs to be supported by a strong theoretical foundation, variables should be correlated (Bartlett's test of sphericity sig. < 0.5) and the measure of sample adequacy should exceed 0.50. If a variable shows a s maller value it should be omitted each time the analysis is run.

As illustrated in Table 4.18.., five factors were identified and a total of 28 items were retained. This coincides with the five variables proposed in the research model. Following the suggestions by DeVellis (2003), items loading lower than 0.5 or loading on more than one factor with a score equal or greater to 0.5 were eliminated. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) resulted in .964. According to Hutcheson and Sofroniu (1999), values above .9 can be considered as highly fitting. The approximate Chi-Square value of the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 5720 and was significant at a .000 level, suggesting a sufficient level of correlation among the variables. Furthermore, none of the items retained loaded on a construct where it was not proposed in and so the results of the PCA were deemed as satisfactory for proceeding to the main study (please notice that the denomination for the items has been shortened for all tables. For full items please refer to Appendix A&B).

Table 4.18. Principal Componet Analysis of pilot study

Item	Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (**α**)	α if item deleted
Factor 1: Brand attitude		**1.850**	**17.162**		**.935**	
att1 I like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	.761			.824		.920
att2"Hong Kong- Asia's World City" is a good brand	.829			.853		.914
att3 I have a positive impression of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	.796			.818		.921
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	.755			.839		.917
att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	.784			.794		.926
Factor 2: BAB intentions		**15.795**	**18.963**		**.952**	
bab4 I would write about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online	.676			.805		.947
bab5 I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online	.671			.803		.947

bab6 I would maximize the diffusion of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online	.673			.838		.945
bab7 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City" events and activities	.651			.799		.947
bab9 I would contribute to the “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” brand’s development	.608			.780		.948
bab10 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand development	.632			.746		.950
bab12 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material frequently	.714			.834		.945
bab13 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material whenever appropriate	.667			.823		.946
bab14 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material in the near future	.698			.856		.944
Factor 3: Brand self-congruity		**2.269**	**17.163**		**.946**	
con2 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is a lot like me	.708			.780		.943
con3 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand reflects what I am	.778			.857		.934

con4 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is how I see myself	.744			.846		.935
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City”	.741			.841		.935
con6 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	.711			.873		.932
con7 Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life	.690			.822		.938
Factor 4: Brand empowerment		**1.038**	**9.496**		**.868**	
emp3 People like me are qualified to participate in decisions affecting the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	.735			.737		.824
emp4 There are plenty of ways to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent	.821			.794		.776
emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	.677			.719		.845
Factor 5: Public trust		**1.130**	**16.083**		**.941**	
tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the HKTB	.821			.839		.928

tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the HKTB	.877	.893	.918
tru3 The HKTB can be trusted to do what is right	.844	.823	.931
tru4 The HKTB is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists	.829	.835	.929
tru5 The HKTB has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people	.769	.818	.931
Total	**78.867**		

Note: KMO= .964; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square= 5752.000, df= 378; p<.000

4.5.3. Revised survey for main data collection

The validation of measurement items through a qualitative pre-study, expert panel and PCA of a pilot test (n= 199) has resulted in a revised version of the questionnaire for its application in the main study. Finally, a total of 28 items measuring five factors were retained (see Table 5.7.). This was split over residents' destination brand attitude (5 items), residents' destination BAB (9 items), residents' destination brand self-congruity (6 items), residents' destination brand empowerment (3 items) and residents' public trust in destination brand authorities (5 items). Following the meticulous phase of validation, the items were deemed as sufficiently valid and reliable for the launch of the main survey.

Table 4.19. Items retained for the main study

Item	Full Wording
Factor 1: Brand attitude	
att1	I like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand
att2	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is a good brand
att3	I have a positive impression of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand
att4	I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable
att5	I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong
Factor 2: BAB intentions	
bab4	Given the chance, I would write about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” online so that my internet-contacts would get to know this brand
bab5	Given the chance, I would pass information about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand to my friends online
bab6	Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online to make sure my internet-contacts would know
bab7	I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions)
bab9	Given the chance, I would contribute to the “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” brand’s development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)
bab10	I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)
bab12	Given the chance, I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material frequently
bab13	Given the chance, I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material whenever appropriate
bab14	Given the chance, I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material in the near future

Factor 3: Brand self-congruity		
con2	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is a lot like me
con3	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand reflects what I am
con4	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is how I see myself
con5	If I would be a brand, I would be “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City”
con6	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects
con7	Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life
Factor 4: Brand empowerment	
emp3	People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting programs like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand
emp4	There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent
emp5	It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the outcome of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand
Factor 5: Public trust	
tru1	I can generally trust the decisions made by the Hong Kong Tourism Board
tru2	I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the Hong Kong Tourism Board
tru3	The Hong Kong Tourism Board can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them
tru4	The Hong Kong Tourism Board is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists to Hong Kong
tru5	The Hong Kong Tourism Board has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong

4.6. Structural Equation Modeling

In order to explain the relationships among the constructs in the theoretical model, SEM was used. SEM is an analytical tool based on a confirmatory multivariate approach, which analyses a structural theory based on s ome phenomena (Byrne, 2010). Subsequently, it 'examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations' (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p. 634). As such, SEM combines interdependence and dependence multivariate techniques and is based and factor analysis and multiple regression analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Also, SEM has a distinctive advantage over older statistical methods, due to its facility of evading multicollinearity and correlated dependent variables (Cameron & Webster, 2011). Currently, it is regarded as an ideal method to test a priory theoretical and measurement assumptions against empirical data (Qin, Kim, Hsu, & Tan, 2011).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) will be used in order to confirm the previously identified dimensions of measurement. Thereafter, an analysis of the structural model is run. This tests the relationships between all the constructs in the pre-established theoretical model (Cameron & Webster, 2011). This often includes the determination of the ways in which constructs in a r esearch model are measured as per observable indicators, which are scale items in the questionnaire (Qin et al., 2011). Hsu and Lu (2004) specify that this is done by reflecting the relationship between latent and observed variables. It is the examination of the latent constructs' relationships which lies on the core of the examination of a measurement model (Qin et al., 2011).

PCA usually shows each factor and its relevant indicators and measurement errors. Typically this is represented visually through path diagrams (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Especially for SEM, Hair Jr. et al., 2010 propose several stages of PCA. First (1), individual constructs have to defined. This can be done by adapting previous constructs with sufficient validity or developing new constructs. Second (2), the overall measurement model has to be developed. It is particularly important for the researcher to distinguish among reflective and formative constructs. Reflective constructs are based on the assumption that latent constructs cause the variables, while formative constructs assume the opposite. As formative constructs are not latent, they present bigger problems with statistical identification. Nonetheless, all constructs used for this specific model have been identified as being reflective. Third (3), a study to produce empirical results has to be designed. In this stage, the researcher's measurement theory is tested. The 'three-indicator rule' is a useful tool for this stage: All factors in a congeneric model should at least have 3 significant indicators. Fourth (4), the measurement model validity has to be assessed.

Although they can be tested in different ways, all SEM models are distinguished by three particular characteristics, namely (1) estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships, (2) an ability to represent unobserved concepts in these relationships and account for measurement error in the estimation process, and (3) defining a model to explain the entire set of relationships (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p. 635). Ultimately, a confirmatory model is constructed. According to Hair Jr. et al., (2010), a

Goodness-of-fit measurement should be applied by using multiple indices in order to validate the fitness of the proposed model and the obtained data.

SEM has been used widely in tourism research, involving core concepts identified for this study (e.g. Hung & Petrick, 2011; 2012). This study therefore applied SEM in order to test the proposed model. Amos was used, as it is commonly used and effective software for similar analyses (Cameron & Webster, 2011).

CHAPTER 5. RESULTS

FOREWORD

This chapter presents the results of the main survey. The later will include the data screening process, descriptive analysis of respondents, as well as the measurement scale reliability. Following, the model fit and construct validity will be assessed. PCA and CFA are performed thereafter, in order to assess the individual measurement model. Next, the overall measurement model with all constructs is tested. After the structural model evaluation, the results of open-ended questions are presented and the hypothesized model testing is finally proposed.

5.1. Main survey data collection

After successful completion of the pilot test, the main survey was launched for full scale data collection. The quota of respondents based on t he aforementioned census, as proposed in this study (see Table 4.2.), was adopted by Toluna. According to Toluna, around 10000 invitations were sent out initially. Following the calculated sample size, an additional 651 samples have been collected through the online panel. Before agreeing to fill the survey, respondents were briefed by an introductory paragraph in English and Chinese, briefly introducing the background of the researcher and the topic of the study (See Appendices A&B). At this point respondents could decide whether or not they wanted to participate in the study. According to Account Manager Alvin Kwok (Personal communication, August 14, 2014), respondents were drawn randomly from the Toluna database in Hong Kong, taking in account the previously suggested quotas (See Chapter

4). Toluna recruits a variety of members for the database through advertisement on the internet, having resulted in one of the world's biggest and most diverse online panels (Toluna, 2013). This was an advantage in obtaining the suggested quotas. The suitability of respondents was also guaranteed by selecting only HKPRs from the Toluna database. The overall response rate of the survey was at 15% (Number of surveys started/number of completes), which lies in the average of external online survey rates in Hong Kong, normally reaching from 10 to 15% (Account Manager Alvin Kwok, Personal communication, August 14, 2014). By the 18th of May 2014 the initial analysis of the pilot test had been completed and the accordingly adjusted survey has been launched. Within the 27th of May, the survey agency was able to provide the complete dataset for the researcher in SPSS format. Initially, the time for filling the survey has been scrutinized. It was initially proposed that the completion of the questionnaire would take approximately 15-20 minutes. The results shows that indeed 86.5% of the respondents were able to complete the entire survey in 20 or less minutes, with 59.9% finalizing the results in less than 10 minutes (see Figure 5.1.). Following the same procedures as in the pilot test, the large database of the agency allowed this efficient and high response rate. Once the full data was obtained, the researcher proceeded to data screening, which is the imperative first step for an SEM analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2010).

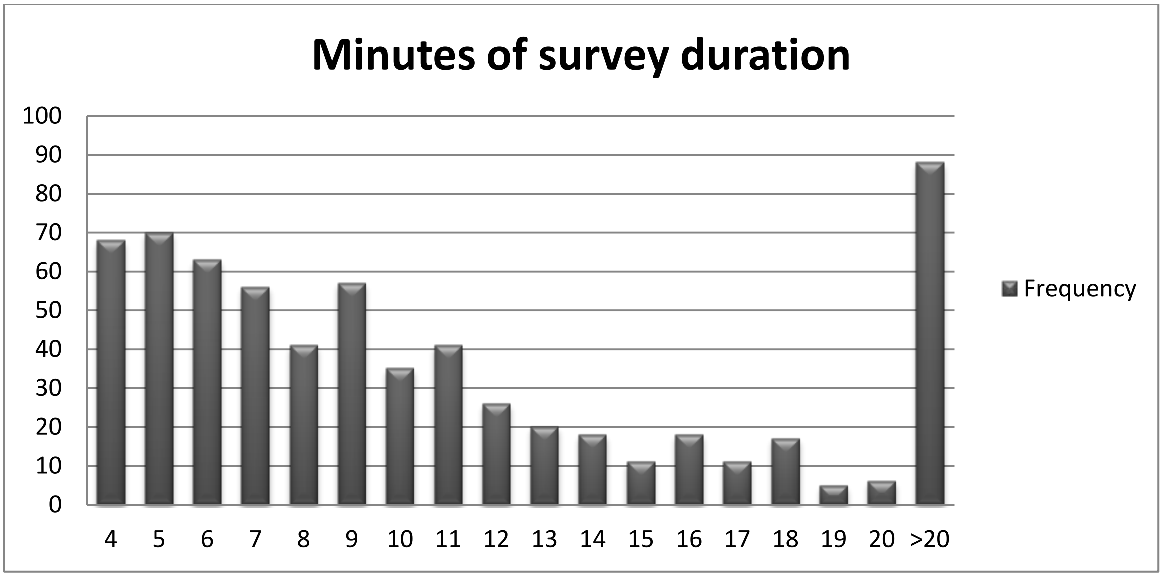

Figure 5.1. Survey duration per respondent

5.2. Main survey data screening

Low quality data is highly likely to bias, if not violate, the accuracy of the overall findings (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). It is thus mandatory for any researcher to scan the raw data for several criteria which guarantee quality data. Again, the screening for (1) outliers, (2) missing data, and (3) normality were regarded as the most important (Kline, 2011).

5.2.1. Outliers

Outliers are scores which significantly differ from the rest and thus challenge the representativeness of the obtained data through biasing the mean and normal distribution (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Kline (2011) suggests that outliers can be univariate (differ substantially from the mean score within a single item) and mulitvariate (extreme scores on two or more items). Simple summaries of the data, also known as descriptive analyses, are the most common way of detecting univariate outlieres (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). This can be aided by visual representation of the data in form of box plots. Both of these features are commonly available in statistical analysis tools, and in this case were used through SPSS 20.0.

All of the measurement scales used in the online panel were 7-point Likert scales and thus all the scores were expected to range from 1 to 7. None of the scores were found to be outside this range. In order to check for univariate outliers, use of box plots and descriptives was made in SPSS (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Histograms were used as an additional means to detect univariate outliers. Several potential outliers were identified from the data, but this was expected due to the heterogeneity of the resident stakeholder, which has been mentioned as a key characteristic of this particular target group. As it is crucial for this research to best capture this heterogeneity, the advice of Hair Jr. et al. (2010) to consider not deleting outliers was followed. Nonetheless, the suggestion of Kline (2011) was followed and a Mahalanobis distance (D) test, which represents the distance among standard deviation sets of single scores and the sample means for all variables, was run in the Amos software, highlighting a few potential multivariate outliers. However, univariate outlier identification was deemed as the final decision maker for their retention, as multivariate outliers were limited by the online panels 'no straight liners' policy, i.e. respondents who would answer every item on the same scale would not be accepted as valid participants. Finally, the total of 651 responses was retained.

5.2.2. Missing data

Missing data is a very common issue in research, and normally is not considered significant if less than 5% in a single variable (Kline, 2011). In this case, respondents were encouraged by the survey company to respond to every item, as their financial benefit would not be available when this is neglected. The agreement was thus that no responses with missing data would be delivered. This was verified by scrutinizing the SPSS files meticulously and no missing data was found.

5.2.3. Descriptive statistics and normality

Descriptive statistics for all the measurement items are provided in Table 5.1. Finally, the data was checked for normality, as this is an important prerequisite for a SEM analysis (Hu, Bentler & Kano, 1992; van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004). This refers to the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to normal distribution (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). It is thus mandatory to examine normality in the data screening process. There are two main ways of non-normality that can occur separately or simultaneously in a single variable, namely skew and kurtosis (Kline, 2011). These are generally the most important issues to consider (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Positive skewness indicates that most scores are below the mean, while negative skewness shows the opposite. Positive kurtosis, on the other hand, indicates heavy tails and a high peak compared with a normally distributed curve, while negative kurtosis indicates the exact opposite. Significant departures from normality are especially severe with data sets smaller than 50, while for the sample size of 200 or larger, impacts on results are usually less relevant (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In terms of skewness, the absolute cutoff value of 3.0 was considered, while for kurtosis the margin was set at 8.0 (Kline, 2011). Boomsma (1983), as well as Muthén and Kaplan (2011) had anyhow suggested that there is very little chance of bias when the median (or mean) of the absolute value of skewness (CR) is not larger than 10 approximately. This is also confirmed by Gao, Mokhtarian and Johnston (2008) in a paper specifically dealing with nonnormality issues in SEM. For the responses of the study, the absolute values of skewness lie between 2.424 and 8.680, while for kurtosis between 0.048 and 3.635 (see Table 5.1.), suggesting that the assumptions of univariate normal distribution are not severely violated, in which case outliers can be kept in the dataset (Gao et al., 2008). Multivariate normality was assessed in AMOS and was not found to be severely violated (Kurtosis total 513.168; CR 159.722) considering the large sample size between 500 and 1000 respondents (Lei & Lomax, 2009), and the fact that studies with more than 600 respondents usually obtain unbiased parameter estimates for data with non-normal multivariate distribution (Gao et al., 2008). Table 5.1. shows that the data was fairly normal distributed the positive aspect of which is enhanced by the fact that the sample size is considerably large (Gao et al., 2008; Hair Jr. et al., 2010).

Table 5.1. Descriptive statistics for measurement items main study

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	CR	Kurtosis	CR
att1 I like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	5.28	1.101	-.746	-7.792	.597	3.119
att2“Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” is a good brand	5.28	1.132	-.756	-7.849	.695	3.635

att3 I have a positive impression of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	5.10	1.169	-.583	-6.087	.090	0.470
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	5.12	1.163	-.679	-7.094	.349	1.824
att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	5.27	1.172	-.831	-8.680	.629	3.288
bab4 I would write about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online	4.86	1.277	-.528	-5.510	.095	0.498
bab5 I would pass information about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand to my friends online	4.90	1.282	-.525	-5.486	.062	0.324
bab6 I would maximize the diffusion of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online	4.80	1.326	-.520	-5.434	.138	0.721
bab7 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City" events and activities	4.80	1.315	-.589	-6.150	.336	1.757
bab9 I would contribute to the “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” brand’s development	4.74	1.223	-.526	-5.490	.080	0.419
bab10 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand development	4.67	1.268	-.509	-5.316	.129	0.674
bab12 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material frequently	4.45	1.287	-.295	-3.077	.024	0.124

bab13 I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material whenever appropriate	4.80	1.164	-.487	.-5.081	.484	2.539
bab14 I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material in the near future	4.59	1.229	-.444	-4.637	.376	1.965
con2 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a lot like me	4.40	1.317	-.414	-4.324	.097	0.508
con3 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand reflects what I am	4.41	1.327	-.461	-4.810	.069	0.359
con4 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is how I see myself	4.49	1.335	-.462	-4.852	.163	0.850
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be "Hong Kong- Asia's World City"	4.48	1.324	-.416	-4.347	.188	0.981
con6 The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	4.47	1.329	-.435	-4.541	.111	0.582
con7 Through the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand I can express what I find important in life	4.58	1.318	-.559	-5.839	.220	1.152
emp3 People like me are qualified to participate in decisions affecting the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.88	1.152	-.364	-3.798	.206	1.079
emp4 There are plenty of ways to have a say in how the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand funds are spent	4.94	1.183	-.541	-5.560	.521	2.726

emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	4.96	1.188	-.288	-3.004	-.009	-0.048
tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the HKTB	4.63	1.430	-.622	-6.491	-.120	-0.628
tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the HKTB	4.50	1.447	-.520	-5.426	-.241	-0.628
tru3 The HKTB can be trusted to do what is right	4.15	1.520	-.232	-2.424	-.635	-3.317
tru4 The HKTB is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists	4.45	1.532	-.482	-5.028	-.404	-2.111
tru5 The HKTB has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people	4.68	1.360	-.638	-6.661	.264	1.380

Multivariate Normality (Kurtosis 513.168; CR 159.722)

Identical to the results of the pilot test, all the items were shown to be negatively, although moderately skewed, with the standardized skewness statistics ranging from -.756 to -.232. The standard deviation of the items was also fairly consistent, with a minimum of 1.101 to a maximum of 1.532 deviation from the mean. This suggests again that the data does not have major kurtosis issues.

5.2.4. Demographics of respondents

The target group of the sample was the same as previously discussed, namely HKPRs, distributed according to quotes of age, gender and area of residency. After the successful launch of the pilot test, additional 651 samples were delivered to the researcher. While the respondents of the pilot test were found to reasonably reflect the overall population of HKPRs, the same criteria had to be verified in the main data (Table 5.2.).

Table 5.2. Demographics of main survey respondents

Items	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Language	English	37	5.7	5.7	5.7
	Traditional Chinese	614	94.3	94.3	100.0
	Total	651	100.0	100.0	
Gender	Male	319	49.0	49.0	49.0
	Female	332	51.0	51.0	100.0
	Total	651	100.0	100.0	
Age	18-24	57	8.8	8.8	8.8
	25-34	143	22.0	22.0	30.7
	35-44	205	31.5	31.5	62.2
	45-54	246	37.8	37.8	100.0
	Total	651	100.0	100.0	
Monthly income	Below $7,100	54	8.3	8.3	8.3
	$7,100 - 9,999	37	5.7	5.7	14.0
	$10,000 - 12,499	72	11.1	11.1	25.0
	$12,500 - 14,999	66	10.1	10.1	35.2
	$15,000 - 19,999	116	17.8	17.8	53.0
	$20,000 - 24,999	72	11.1	11.1	64.1
	$25,000 - 29,999	65	10.0	10.0	74.0
	$30,000 - 34,999	46	7.1	7.1	81.1
	$35,000 - 39,999	35	5.4	5.4	86.5
	$40,000 - 44,999	17	2.6	2.6	89.1
	$45,000 - 49,999	18	2.8	2.8	91.9
	$50,000 - 59,999	16	2.5	2.5	94.3

	$60,000 - 69,999	6	.9	.9	95.2
	$70,000 - 99,999	9	1.4	1.4	96.6
	$100,000 - 149,999	4	.6	.6	97.2
	$200,000 or above	1	.2	.2	97.4
	Refused	17	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	651	100.0	100.0	
Area of residency	Hong Kong Island	109	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Kowloon	228	35.0	35.0	51.8
	New Territories and Outlying Islands	314	48.2	48.2	100.0
	Total	651	100.0	100.0	

The chosen language was again largely Cantonese, with 94.3% of the respondents opting for Traditional Chinese instead of English. According to the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2013), this roughly reflects the linguistic distribution of HKPRs. Respondents were reasonably distributed according to gender, with slightly more female (51%) than male (49%) participants.

The respondents of the main survey were found to be slightly older than the ones of the pilot study. A total of 37.8% of the respondents were between 45-55 years of age, while 53.5% were aged between 25 and 44. This suggests that the working group of HKPRs constitutes the majority of respondents, while people aged 24 or younger are still fairly represented with 8.8%. Regarding the monthly income level, only a small number of respondents (n= 17) refused to answer. As most of the participants were found to be in a working age, the monthly earning reasonably reflects this profile. Almost 60% of the respondents declared monthly earnings between 10,000 and 30,000 HK$, suggesting their being part of middle class HKPRs. Finally, the geographical distribution according to area of residency was scrutinized. According to the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2012), approximately 18% of Hong Kong residents live in Hong Kong Island, 31% in Kowloon and 51% in the New Territories and Outlying Islands. The distribution of the data somehow reflects this trend, with 16.7% of the respondents residing in Hong Kong Island, 35% in Kowloon and 48.2% in the New Territories and Outlying Islands.

As, considering the limitation of the sample size, the data generally reflects the HKPRs according to the indicators mentioned, the data suggests to be adequate for investigating the phenomenon under consideration. The main data was thus considered as adequate for proceeding with the analysis.

5.3. Split sample validation of data

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2010), split sample or cross validation refers to a preventive method for avoiding the over fitting of the discriminant function by allowing its validation on a separate sample. In other words, the sample data is divided into two parts, namely (1) the analysis sample and (2) the holdout sample. The analysis sample is used to estimate the model, while the holdout sample estimates the stability of the parameters (PCA). In other words, it will assess how an independent data set would correspond to the result of the analysis.

An effective way of splitting sufficiently big data sets is to do so randomly (Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In this case, data was randomly split into two separate groups in SPSS 20.0. This has resulted in two data sets of 300 (holdout sample) and 351 (analysis sample) respectively. The first split was used for PCA (holdout sample), while the second was used for the validation of the model (analysis sample). The sample was considered sufficiently large for being split, as the recommended ratio of respondents to predictor variables should be 5:1 (Hair Jr. et al., 2010) or at least 20 cases per variable (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Next, the PCA as a validation procedure of the previously identified constructs will be presented with the subsample number 1. Following, a CFA of subsample 2 will be presented in order to show the results of factorial validity.

5.3.1. Principal Component Analysis holdout sample

PCA investigates the composition of the constructs (factors) used in the model. Variables, or factors, are by definition highly correlated and represent dimension within the collected data (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). As such, PCA explores the dimensionality and the reduction of items for each variable. In other words, it investigates whether there is an underlying structure in the pattern of correlations among items in the questionnaire and is a data reduction method (Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Sung & Mayer, 2012). As especially the variable 'BAB intention' used for this research is a newly proposed construct, PCA will be needed to reduce the number of proposed items.

With PCA, unrestricted factor models are not generally identified (Kline, 2011). This is because a PCA solution can be rotated in an infinite number of ways through various rotation methods. According to Brown (2009), there are two principal methods to relate calculated factors to theoretical entities. This depends whether the factors are correlated (use of oblique rotation) or the uncorrelated (orthogonal rotation). For a first data analysis, the choice of the orthogonal Varimax rotation is the most adequate and it has thus been selected for this study (Field, 2007). The 300 cases retained for the holdout sample furthermore meet the minimum requirements for running a PCA (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The results of the PCA are shown in table 5.3.:

Table 5.3. Principal Component Analysis of holdout sample

Item	Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (**α**)	α if item deleted
Factor 1: Brand attitude		**1.930**	**17.584**		**.925**	
att1 I like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	.777			.807		.908
att2"Hong Kong- Asia's World City" is a good brand	.794			.822		.905
att3 I have a positive impression of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	.755			.813		.907
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	.789			.842		.901

att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	.718			.747		.920
Factor 2: BAB intentions		**16.268**	**20.598**		**.958**	
bab4 I would write about the "Hong Kong-Asia's World City" brand online	.679			.849		.951
bab5 I would pass information about the "Hong Kong-Asia's World City" brand to my friends online	.666			.844		.952
bab6 I would maximize the diffusion of the "Hong Kong-Asia's World City" brand online	.678			.860		.951
bab7 I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" events and activities	.642			.765		.955
bab9 I would contribute to the "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand's development	.678			.835		.952

bab10 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand development	.692			.830		.952
bab12 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material frequently	.692			.830		.952
bab13 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material whenever appropriate	.726			.819		.953
bab14 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material in the near future	.699			.801		.954
Factor 3: Brand self-congruity		**1.653**	**15.964**		**.963**	
con2 The “Hong Kong-Asia’s World City” brand is a lot like me	.761			.842		.961
con3 The “Hong Kong-Asia’s World City” brand reflects what I am	.767			.906		.954

con4 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is how I see myself	.780			.904		.954
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City”	.734			.874		.957
con6 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	.747			.899		.955
con7 Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life	.708			.871		.958
Factor 4: Brand empowerment		**1.076**	**9.827**		**.868**	
emp3 People like me are qualified to participate in decisions affecting the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	.855			.789		.777

emp4 There are plenty of ways to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent	.795			.734		.828
emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	.773			.724		.837
Factor 5: Public trust		**1.356**	**15.610**		**.941**	
tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the HKTB	.832			.854		.925
tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the HKTB	.835			.877		.920
tru3 The HKTB can be trusted to do what is right	.818			.825		.930
tru4 The HKTB is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists	.757			.812		.933
tru5 The HKTB has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people	.757			.839		.928
Total			**79.583**			

Note: KMO= .956; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square= 9028.300, df= 378; p<.000

First, factor loadings of the items had to be scrutinized. Factor loading represent the correlation among the items and its factor and sufficient loadings indicate convergent validity (Hair Jr. et al, 2010). For a sample size of approximately 250, a factor loading should exceed .350 in order to be retained. The average communality should ideally be larger than 0.60 for a similar sample size (Kaiser, 1974). Items which load on two or more factors, with differences greater than 0.40, should be removed as they cross-load (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The items retained in the pilot test loaded accurately on their conceptualized constructs, maintaining the number of factors stable at five. Brand attitude was found to have five remaining constructs, BAB intentions nine, brand self-congruity six, brand empowerment three, and public trust five. All of the factor loadings were above the 0.60 threshold suggested by Kaiser (1974), and no cross-loadings were found, which also suggests discriminant validity.

In order to assess reliability, i.e. internal consistency between multiple items of a single variable, a series of diagnoses as suggested by Hair Jr. et al. (2010) was followed. First, the Cronbach's alpha value was assessed. Being the most common measure of construct reliability, its lower limit should not be less than .70, or .60 for exploratory studies (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In this case, all the variables exceeded the threshold of .80, ranging from a minimum of .868 to a maximum of .963, which suggests a sufficient amount of reliability. Next, it was investigated whether or not the reliability of a construct would change significantly if an item was deleted. No significant improvement was suggested through investigating the Cronbach's alpha if deleted-value. Following the same purpose, the item-total correlation was investigated. Hair Jr. et al. (2010) suggest that this value should exceed .50 in order to show reliability. Again, the results were highly satisfactory, ranging from a minimum of .724 to a maximum of .942.

Next, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was investigated. Kaiser (1974) suggests that a value of 0.50 should be taken as the minimum threshold for an adequate sample. The KMO value of .956 highly exceed this standards and according to Hutcheson and Sonfriou (1999) can be described as superb. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was controlled next in order to examine whether or not the variables were related in an underlying structure, i.e. that the correlations are sufficiently large for analysis. Kaiser (1974) suggests that the related significance threshold is less than 0.50, a criteria which was largely met by the significance level of 0.00.

Concluding, the PCA analysis has provided satisfactory results, suggesting the adequacy of the data for further analyses. Thus, all the variables were kept for further factor validation.

5.3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis analysis sample

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2010), SEM is the most efficient technique for a series of simultaneously estimates multiple regression equations. This is characterized by two basic components, namely (1) the measurement and (2), the structural/path model. The measurement model is an integration of several independent indicators for a variable (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In this stage, the measurement model is analyzed through a

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). It can thus be said, that CFA provides 'half of the basic rationale of analyzing covariance structures in SEM' (Kline, 2011, p. 230).

CFA can be describes as a technique to assess the data fit for a single model statistically (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). More specifically, it tests whether a set of indicators share enough common variance to be considered measures of the same factor (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Furthermore, also the overall model fit is assessed in this stage, i.e. whether or not the model fits the obtained data properly (Kline, 2011). Accordingly, it differs from EFA by the fact that it requires a-priori hypotheses about factor-indicator correspondences and a fixed number of factors.

Although opinions in regard vary, several comprehensible guidelines on how to interpret the results of CFA used for SEM can be found in literature. First, the model fit needs to be assessed, i.e. how well the model fits the data (Kline, 2011). There are several related indicators available in the AMOS software that has been used for this research. The most important are the $\chi 2/df$ statistic, the RMSEA and the CFI or TLI (Hair Jr. et al., 2010), which are used for this study. It is thus necessary to determine the relevant definitions and thresholds which will be used (see Table 5.4.).

First absolute fit indices have to be assessed. They generally refer to overall goodness-of-fit, without comparisons to a specific null-model (Hair Jr. et al. 2010). The relative/normed Chi-square ($\chi 2/df$) is a statistic that minimizes the impact of sample size on the model chi-square (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Although no consensus in cutoff points is reached, it is generally accepted that the fit range goes from 2.0 to 5.0 (Wheaton, Muthén, Alwin, & Summers, 1977).

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) indicates how well a model with unknown, but optimally chosen parameter estimates would fit the populations' covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). Although opinions in regard vary, Steiger (2007) indicates that a v alue of smaller than .07 indicates an acceptable model fit. MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996) argue that up t o .08 can be deemed as appropriate, with levels that exceed 0.10 indicating a poor fit.

Next, incremental fit indices have to be assessed. These indices assess how well the estimated model fits an alternative baseline model (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) assumes all latent variables to be uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with the null model (Hooper et al., 2008). It is one of the most popular fit indices as it is not affected by sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999). Usually it is accepted that a CFI greater or equal to 0.9 indicates a good model fit (Bentler, 1992). The Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) is a comparison of the normed Chi-square values for the null and specified models. According to Hair Jr. et al. (2010), an approximate value of 0.9 or greater can be deemed as appropriate. In order to improve the model fit error terms are commonly covariated (Hooper et al. 2008). Correlated errors basically mean that two items are measuring something in common which is not only relevant to the latent variable measured, i.e. that they have something else which unites them. Therefore factor correlation usually needs theoretical justification (Jöreskog & Long, 1993). While correlating errors across latent variables is difficult to justify, correlation of errors within factors is usually deemed as acceptable (Bowen & Guo, 2012;

Hooper et al., 2008). Theoretical justification of the eventual errors correlated will thus be discussed in the upcoming section.

Table 5.4. Thresholds used for model validity

Measurement	Acceptable level	Adopted from
Normed Chi-square ($\chi 2$/df)	2.0 - 5.0	Wheaton et al. (1977)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< .08	McCallum et al. (1996)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.9	Bentler, (1992)
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.9	Hair Jr. et al. (2010)

Construct validity has to be assessed next. Construct validity refers to the 'extent to which a set of measured variables actually represent the theoretical latent construct they are designed to measure.' (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p. 609) . This is done through examining both, convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity refers to the fact that items which measure the same construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Hair Jr. et al. (2010) set some parameters in regards. Accordingly, there are several ways of estimating convergent validity. First, standardized factor loadings should be examined. Ideally, they should exceed 0.5 to obtain evidence of convergent validity. Next, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) should be calculated and exceed 0.5. Last, Construct Reliability (CR) is an indicator for validity. A value exceeding 0.7 usually indicates a high level of reliability.

Discriminant validity indicates in how far a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). According to Hair Jr. et al. (2010), discriminant validity is efficiently assessed by comparing the AVE values among constructs with the shared variance (inclusive of Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and Average Shared Variance (ASV)). Accordingly, the most rigorous procedure for examining discriminant validity is to compare the AVE values for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimates between the two (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Another measure of assessing discriminant validity is proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). In this case the AVE of each construct is compared with its squared correlations with other constructs. If the AVE exceeds the correlations, i.e. the measurements of a s pecific construct share more variance with its latent variable than with other latent constructs, discriminant validity is achieved (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

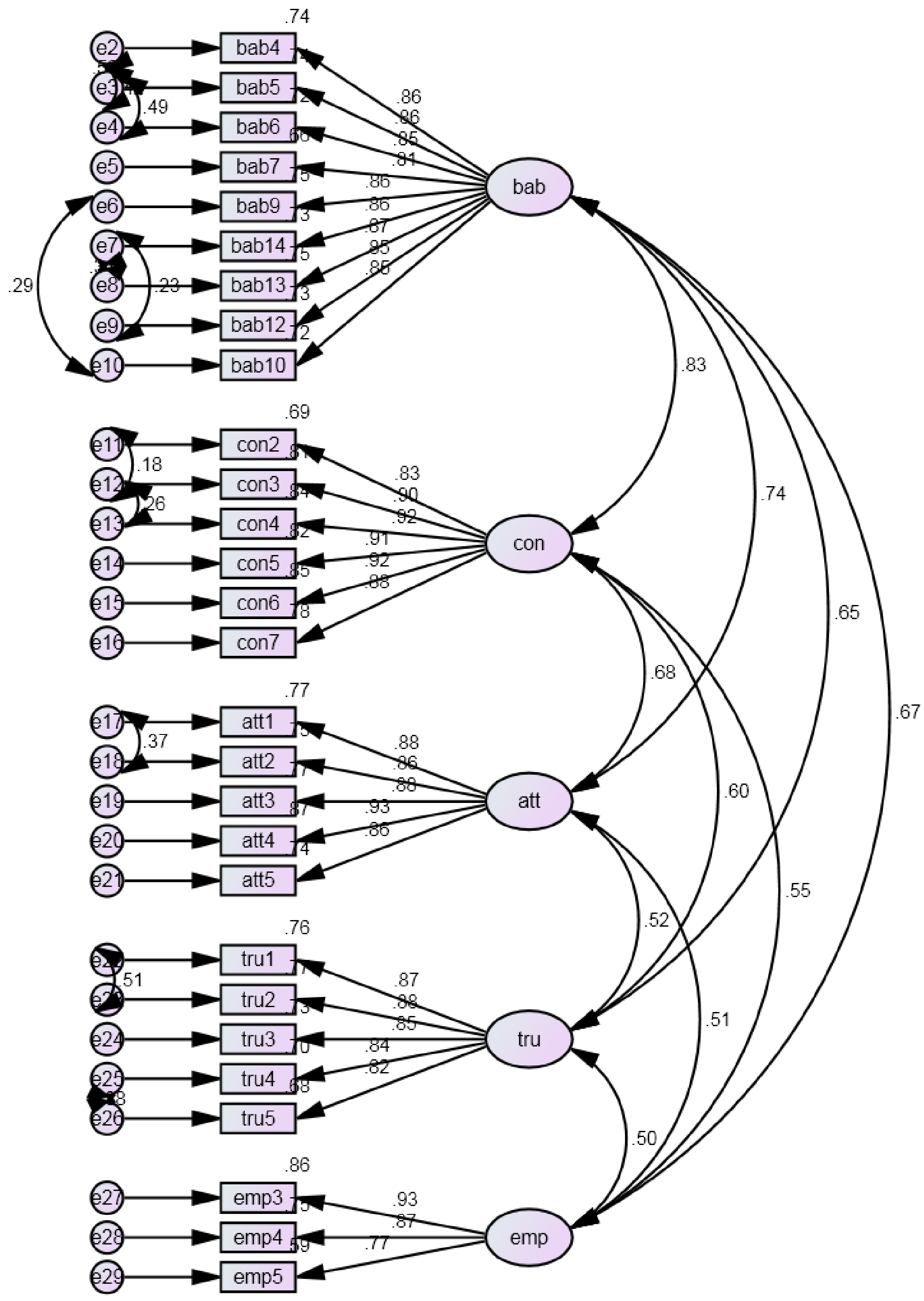

Figure 5.2. Measurement model analysis sample

As the data was previously split and the holdout sample was used for EFA analysis, the analysis sample (n= 351) was employed for CFA (see Figure 5.2.). First of all, following common practice, the error terms of observed variables were correlated if necessary. A common reason for correlation among error terms is that items are drawn from the same instrument or share the same question stem (Bowen et al., 2002, as cited in Bowen & Guo, 2012). In the case of the BAB intentions variable, several correlations among items were found. Some of them share the same hypothetical question stem ('Given the chance') which was added during the qualitative pre-study (bab4 *Given the chance, I would write about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" online so that my internet-contacts would get to know this brand*, bab5 *Given the chance, I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online*, bab6 *Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online to make sure my internet-contacts would know*, bab12 *Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material frequently*, bab13 *Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material whenever appropriate*, bab14 *Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material in the near future*), while others are drawn from the same instrument (bab9 *Given the chance, I would contribute to the "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand's development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)*, bab10 *I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)*. Regarding brand attitude, two items have a very strong vicinity in their formulation, as both are expressing approval (att1 *I like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand*, att2 *The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a good brand*), while in the self-congruity construct three items share the same stem (The "Hong Kong - Asia's World City brand...") (con2 *The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a lot like me*, con3 *The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand reflects what I am*, con4 *The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is how I see myself*) and in the trust construct two items are very similar in their formulation and meaning (tru1 *I can generally trust the decisions made by the Hong Kong Tourism Board*, tru2 *I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the Hong Kong Tourism Board*), while other two are related and have been added in the qualitative pre-study (tru4 *The Hong Kong Tourism Board is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists to Hong Kong*, tru5 *The Hong Kong Tourism Board has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong*).

The goodness-of-fit indices show a good model fit, matching the previously discussed thresholds (see Table 5.5.). The Normed Chi-square equals to 2.176, t he RMSEA to 0.058, the CFI to .965 and the TLI to .950.

Table 5.5. Goodness-of-fit indices analysis sample

Measurement	Acceptable level	Indices
Normed Chi-square ($\chi 2$/df) *	2.0 - 5.0	**2.176**
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.08	**0.058**
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.9	**.965**
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.9	**.950**
** Chi-square= 715.949; df= 329*		

Next, the parameters set for reliability and validity had to be scrutinized (See Table 5.6.). Standardized factor loadings should exceed 0.5 in order to obtain convergent validity (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). As seen in Table 5.6., all of the items largely exceed this threshold, ranging from a minimum of 0.771 (emp5) to a maximum of 0.931 (att4). The next parameter to consider is the AVE which, as previously mentioned, ideally exceeds 0.5. All of the factors have largely exceeded this threshold, with brand attitude showing an AVE of 0.779, BAB intentions 0.726, brand self-congruity 0.798, brand empowerment 0.734, and public trust 0.726. The last parameter to consider for reliability and thus convergent validity is CR, which according to Hair Jr. et al. (2010) should ideally exceed 0.7. Again, this threshold was widely exceeded, with brand attitude at 0.946, B AB intentions 0.960, brand self-congruity 0.959, brand empowerment 0.892, and public trust 0.930. Concluding, it can be said that the analysis sample has largely met and even exceeded the criteria suggested for obtaining convergent validity and reliability, suggesting that items within the same construct share a sufficient amount of variance.

Subsequently, discriminant validity was scrutinized. This has been done in two ways, as suggested by Hair Jr. et al. (2010) and Fornell and Larcker (1981). First, the AVE among constructs was compared with the MSV and the ASV (see Table 5.6.). For brand attitude The AVE was at 0.779 (0.554, 0.388), BAB intentions 0.960 (0.682, 0.526), brand self-congruity 0.789 (0.682,0.454), brand empowerment 0.734 (0.446, 0.315), and public trust 0.726 (0.424, 0.325). As the AVE exceeds the MSV and AVE in all cases, discriminant validity criteria for the constructs were met.

Table 5.6. Convergent and discriminant validity analysis sample

Item	Loading	t-value	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Factor 1: Brand attitude			**0.946**	**0.779**	**0.554**	**0.388**
att1 I like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.876	-				
att2“Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” is a good brand	0.864	28.345				
att3 I have a positive impression of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.877	23.208				
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	0.931	25.796				
att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	0.862	22.053				
Factor 2: BAB intentions			**0.960**	**0.726**	**0.682**	**0.526**
bab4 I would write about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online	0.861	-				
bab5 I would pass information about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand to my friends online	0.859	32.569				
bab6 I would maximize the diffusion of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online	0.846	27.676				
bab7 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City" events and activities	0.813	19.56				
bab9 I would contribute to the “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” brand’s	0.864	21.676				

development						
bab10 I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand development	0.848	20.856				
bab12 I would use “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” promotional material frequently	0.855	21.229				
bab13 I would use “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” promotional material whenever appropriate	0.866	21.676				
bab14 I would use “Hong Kong – Asia’s World City” promotional material in the near future	0.856	21.19				
Factor 3: Brand self-congruity			**0.959**	**0.798**	**0.682**	**0.454**
con2 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is a lot like me	0.829	-				
con3 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand reflects what I am	0.901	24.14				
con4 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is how I see myself	0.916	22.639				
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City”	0.907	22.238				
con6 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	0.919	22.713				
con7 Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life	0.884	21.173				
Factor 4: Brand empowerment			**0.892**	**0.734**	**0.446**	**0.315**
emp3 People like me are qualified to participate in decisions affecting the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.926	-				
emp4 There are plenty of ways to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent	0.866	22.111				
emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.771	17.913				
Factor 5: Public trust			**0.930**	**0.726**	**0.424**	**0.325**
tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the HKTB	0.869	-				
tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the HKTB	0.879	31.611				
tru3 The HKTB can be trusted to do what is right	0.853	20.045				

tru4 The HKTB is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists	0.836	19.184
tru5 The HKTB has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people	0.823	18.573

In order to re-verify discriminant validity with an alternative method, the AVE for any construct was compared with the squared correlation estimates among the two. As shown in Table 5.7., the square-root of the AVE is the highest among all the correlations. This again suggests that the constructs meet the criteria for discriminant validity, i.e. that they are sufficiently distinct from each other.

Table 5.7. Construct AVE comparison with squared inter-construct correlation analysis sample*

	TRU	BAB	CON	ATT	EMP
TRU	**0.852**				
BAB	0.651	**0.852**			
CON	0.601	0.826	**0.893**		
ATT	0.517	0.744	0.685	**0.882**	
EMP	0.498	0.668	0.551	0.512	**0.857**
** Square-root of AVE in bold*					

5.4. Measurement model

As the cross-validation of the data has been successful, the next step was to test the measurement model with the whole dataset (n= 650).

In order to assess the data fit for the proposed model with the full sample, another CFA was run, following the same criteria as the one for the analysis sample, resulting in another measurement model (see Figure 5.3.).

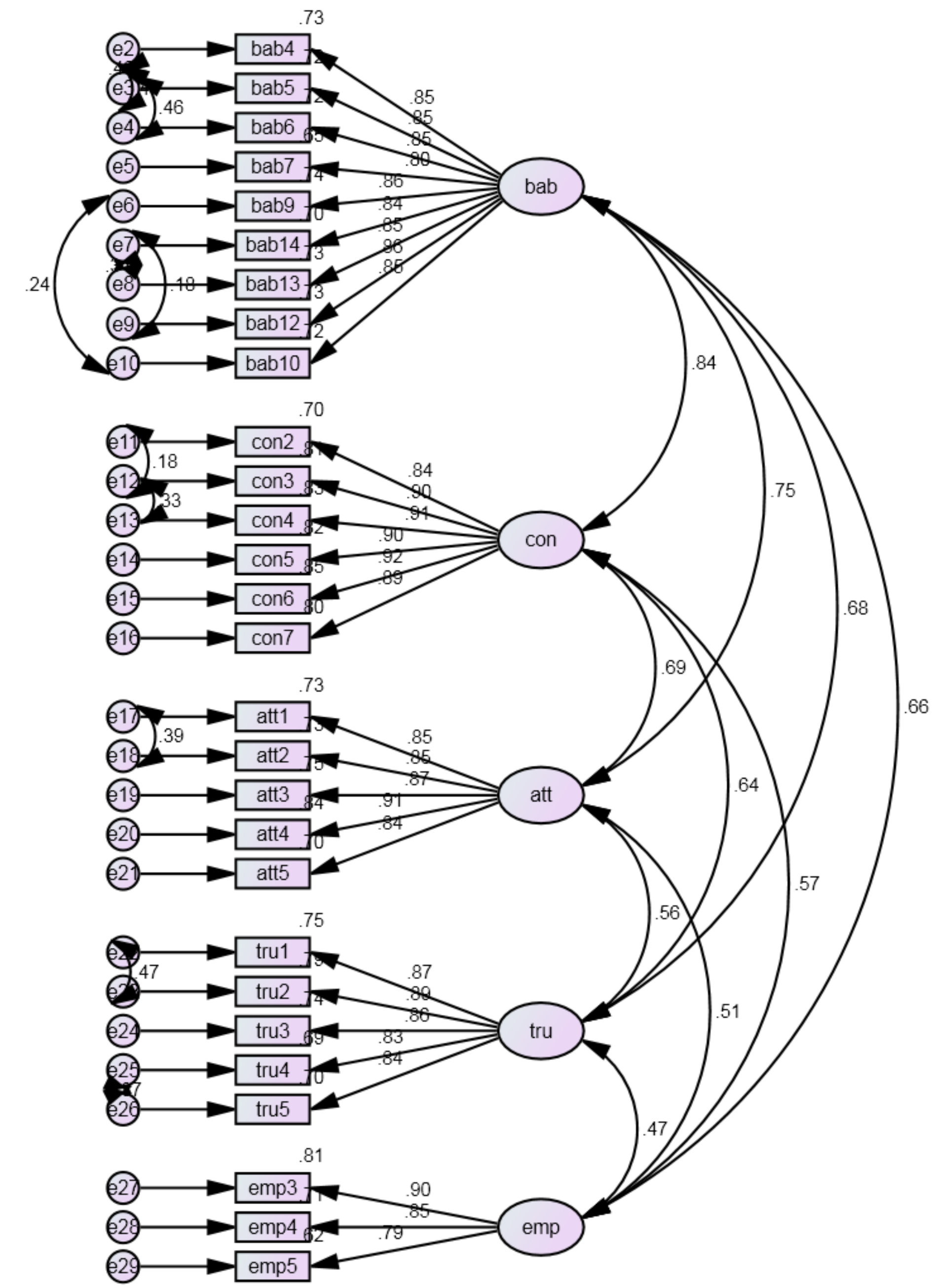

Figure 5.3. Measurement model main data

Next the goodness-of-fit criteria were examined. The indices show again a good model fit, matching the earlier discussed thresholds (see Table 5.8.). The Normed Chi-square equals to 2.587, the RMSEA to .049, the CFI to .974 and the TLI to .970.

Table 5.8. Goodness-of-fit indices main data

Measurement	Acceptable level	Indices
Normed Chi-square ($\chi 2$/df) *	2.0 - 5.0	**2.587**
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< .08	**.049**
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.9	**.974**
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.9	**.970**
** Chi-square= 851.234; df= 329*		

The previously established parameters set for reliability and validity had also to be investigated (See Table 5.8.). Standardized factor loadings were again largely exceeding the threshold of 0.5 set by Hair Jr. et al. (2010), ranging from a minimum of 0.787 (emp5) to a maximum of 0.924 (con6). The AVE which, as previously mentioned should exceed 0.5 was also indicating convergent validity, with brand attitude at AVE of 0.748, BAB intentions 0.715, brand self-congruity 0.804, brand empowerment 0.713, and public trust 0.735. CR was also exceeding the threshold of 0.7 suggested by Hair Jr. et al. (2010), with brand attitude at 0.937, BAB intentions at 0.958, brand self-congruity 0.961, brand empowerment 0.882, and public trust 0.933.

As a next step, discriminant validity was tested for the main data. The subsequent procedures follow the ones employed for the analysis sample, i.e. adhering to two different measures as suggested by Hair Jr. et al. (2010) and Fornell and Larcker (1981). Once more, the AVE among constructs was compared with the MSV and the ASV (see

Table 5.9.). For brand attitude, the AVE results at 0.748 (0.560, 0.402), BAB intentions 0.715 (0.704, 0.539), brand self-congruity 0.804 (0.704 ,0.477), brand empowerment 0.713 (0.436, 0.313), and public trust 0.735 (0.457, 0.350). The AVE was found again to exceed the MSV and AVE in all cases and thus, the discriminant validity criteria for main data set were met.

Table 5.9. Convergent and discriminant validity main data

Item	Loading	t-value	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Factor 1: Brand attitude			**0.937**	**0.748**	**0.560**	**0.402**
att1 I like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	0.853	-				
att2"Hong Kong- Asia's World City" is a good brand	0.852	36.082				
att3 I have a positive impression of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand	0.867	28.940				
att4 I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable	0.914	31.503				
att5 I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong	0.836	26.849				
Factor 2: BAB intentions			**0.958**	**0.715**	**0.704**	**0.539**
bab4 I would write about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online	0.853	-				
bab5 I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online	0.850	38.791				
bab6 I would maximize the diffusion of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online	0.849	38.903				
bab7 I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" events and activities	0.803	25.664				
bab9 I would contribute to the "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand's development	0.858	28.793				
bab10 I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development	0.851	28.069				
bab12 I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material	0.856	28.488				

frequently						
bab13 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material whenever appropriate	0.852	28.200				
bab14 I would use “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” promotional material in the near future	0.838	27.395				
Factor 3: Brand self-congruity			**0.961**	**0.804**	**0.704**	**0.477**
con2 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is a lot like me	0.839	-				
con3 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand reflects what I am	0.901	33.901				
con4 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand is how I see myself	0.910	31.404				
con5 If I would be a brand, I would be “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City”	0.904	30.862				
con6 The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects	0.924	32.134				
con7 Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life	0.893	30.075				
Factor 4: Brand empowerment			**0.882**	**0.713**	**0.436**	**0.312**
emp3 People like me are qualified to participate in decisions affecting the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.898	-				
emp4 There are plenty of ways to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent	0.845	27.132				
emp5 It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand	0.787	24.167				
Factor 5: Public trust			**0.933**	**0.735**	**0.457**	**0.350**
tru1 I can generally trust the decisions made by the HKTB	0.867	-				
tru2 I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the HKTB	0.889	42.234				
tru3 The HKTB can be trusted to do what is right	0.860	27.939				
tru4 The HKTB is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists	0.832	25.973				
tru5 The HKTB has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people	0.837	26.320				

Following the more rigorous procedure, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE for any construct was once more compared with the squared correlation estimates. In all cases the AVE was found to be the highest value (See Table 5.10). It can thus be concluded that the main data set fits all the criteria for the proposed model. This implies that the proposed model was sufficiently reliable and valid to procedure with a test for the structural model.

Table 5.10. Construct AVE comparison with squared inter-construct correlation main data*

	TRU	BAB	CON	ATT	EMP
TRU	**0.857**				
BAB	0.676	**0.846**			
CON	0.637	0.839	**0.897**		
ATT	0.561	0.748	0.685	**0.865**	
EMP	0.470	0.660	0.572	0.513	**0.845**

** Square-root of AVE in bold*

5.5. Structural model

5.5.1. Overall fit

While the measurement model depicts the relationship among the latent variables and their measures, the structural model assesses the links among the latent variables themselves, i.e. how certain latent variables cause changes in other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2010). The entire sample (n= 650) was employed for this analysis.

First, the overall fit for the structural model has to be assessed. The same procedure as the ones applied for the measurement model is commonly followed, i.e. Normed Chi-square ($\chi 2/df$), RMSEA, CFI and TLI have to be scrutinized (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The results were again satisfactory, with the Normed Chi-square (χ2/df) at 2.958, RMSEA at .055, CFI .967 and TLI .962 (see Table 5.11.).

Table 5.11. Goodness-of-fit indices structural model

Measurement	Acceptable level	Indices
Normed Chi-square (χ2/df)*	2.0 - 5.0	**2.958**
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< .08	**.055**
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.9	**.967**
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.9	**.962**
** Chi-square= 973.162; df= 329*		

The structural model, as previously hypothesized, contains two exogenous variables, residents destination brand self-congruity (con) and residents' psychological destination brand empowerment (emp), as well as three endogenous variables, residents' public trust in destination brand authorities (tru), residents' destination brand attitude (att) and residents' BAB intention (bab) (see Figure 5.4.).

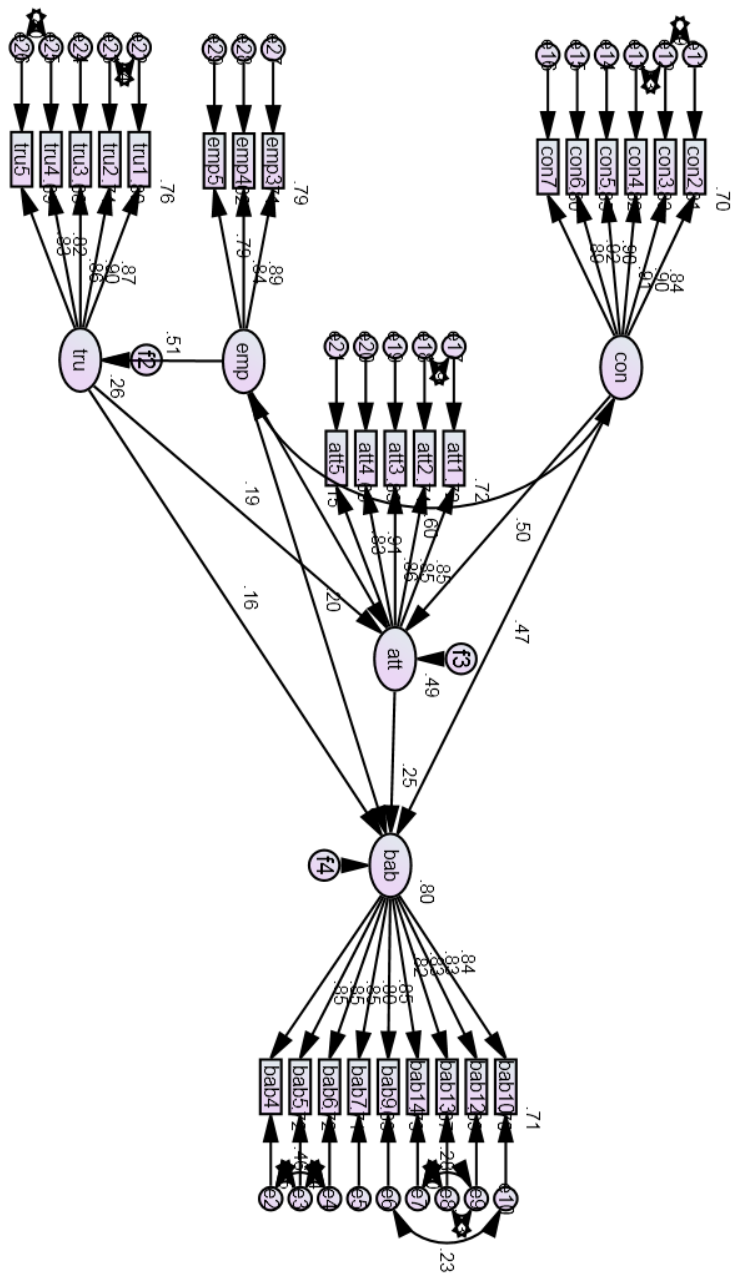

Figure 5.4. Structural model

The Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) value is a useful measure to determine the proportion of variance that is predicted by the predictors of a certain variable (Byrne, 2010). Higher the value, higher is thus the explanatory power of a certain variable in relation with its antecedents. The value of brand attitude resulted at .49 and public trust at .51, meaning that 49% and 51% of the relevant variance was explained by the related exogenous variables. BAB intentions show a high value at .80, meaning that its identified antecedents explain 80% of the related variance in the construct. This suggests a very strong influence of the exogenous variables, particularly on BAB intentions.

As the fit indicators of the structural model suggest that the hypothesized model has a satisfactory fit and approximates the population reasonably, the previously formed hypothesis among the latent variables can be tested.

5.5.2. Hypotheses testing

5.5.2.1. Direct effects

First, the direct effects among the five proposed constructs have been tested. The hypotheses and their derivation had been previously explained in Chapter 3. The total number of hypothesized direct effects was eight. The results show that all of the eight hypotheses were found to be significant in the structural model (see Figure 5.5.).

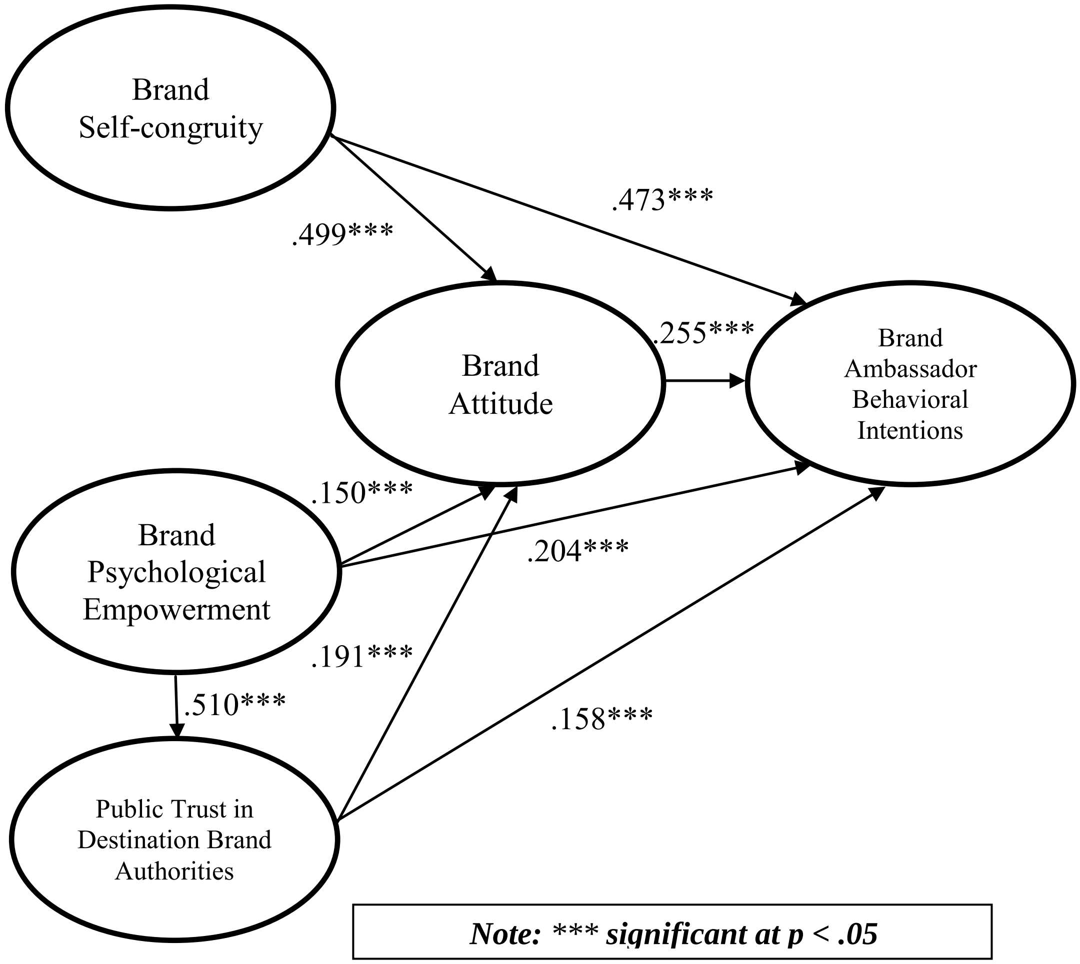

Figure 5.5. Structural model with estimated path coefficients

As shown in Figure 5.5., Hypothesis 1 (H1) stated that residents' destination brand self-congruity is likely to influence residents' destination brand attitude positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand self-congruity' and 'brand attitude (att <--- con). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) stated that residents' destination brand psychological empowerment is likely to influence residents' destination brand attitude positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand psychological empowerment' and 'brand attitude (att <--- emp). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 3 (H3) stated that residents' public trust in destination brand authorities is likely to influence residents' destination brand attitude positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'public trust in destination brand authorities' and 'brand attitude (att <--- tru). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 4 (H4) stated that residents' destination brand psychological empowerment is likely to influence residents' public trust in destination brand authorities positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand psychological empowerment' and 'public trust in destination brand authorities' (tru <--- emp). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 5 (H5) stated that residents' destination brand attitude is likely to influence residents' destination BAB intentions positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand attitude' and 'brand ambassador behavioral intentions' (bab <--- att). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 6 (H6) stated that residents' destination brand self-congruity is likely to influence residents' destination BAB intentions positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand self-congruity' and 'brand ambassador behavioral intentions' (bab <--- con). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 7 (H7) stated that residents' destination psychological empowerment is likely to influence residents' destination BAB intentions positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'brand psychological empowerment' and 'brand ambassador behavioral intentions' (bab <--- emp). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 8 (H8) stated that residents' public trust in destination brand authorities is likely to influence residents' destination BAB intentions positively. This was tested by investigating the path coefficient among the variables 'public trust in destination brand authorities' and 'brand ambassador behavioral intentions' (bab <--- tru). The path coefficient was found to be positive and the hypothesis was supported at a significance level of $p < .05$. A summary of the direct effects hypotheses testing is provided in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12. Direct path testing for structural model

Hypothesis	Path	Weight	*t*-value	Result
H1:	att <--- con	.499	10.473***	**Supported**
H2:	att <--- emp	.150	3.414***	**Supported**
H3:	att <--- tru	.191	4.484***	**Supported**
H4:	tru <--- emp	.510	12.060***	**Supported**
H5:	bab <--- att	.255	7.488***	**Supported**
H6:	bab <--- con	.473	12.204***	**Supported**
H7:	bab <--- emp	.204	6.321***	**Supported**
H8:	bab <--- tru	.158	5.147***	**Supported**

Note: *** significant at p < .05

5.5.2.2. Moderating effects

Residents place attachment was hypothesized to moderate the relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents destination BAB intentions (H9). In other words, respondents with a high level of place attachment are believed to show a stronger intention for BAB than their counterparts with low place attachment. Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174) define a moderator as a variable that 'affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between and independent or predictor variable (X) and a dependent or criterion variable (Y)'. In other words, a moderator may enhance or diminish the causal relationship among two variables (Holmbeck, 1997).

Kim, Kaye and Wright (2001) offer a summary of necessary steps to investigate moderating effects in SEM. First, the researcher needs to calculate several levels of the variable in question. In this case, it was hypothesized that there is a difference among residents with high and low levels of place attachment. In order to define the relevant high and low levels, the median score of place attachment has been calculated on the main data set (n= 650). The median was found to be 5.2143 out of the 7-point Likert scale given. 48,7% of the respondents were thus found to have low levels of place attachment (PattLow), while 51,3% were found to have high place attachment (PattHigh). Subsequently, place attachment was re-coded into low and high level variables in SPSS 20.0, dividing the respondents into two groups.

According to Vandenberg and Lance (2000), measurement models comparing different groups need to be assessed on measurement invariance first. This means, that scores from the operationalization of a construct has the same meaning across the groups in investigation (Meade & Lautenschlager, 2004). An invariance test was run in AMOS by comparing the measurement model for the two groups, PattHigh and PattLow (see Table 5.13.).

Table 5.13. Invariance test for respondents with high and low place attachment

Group	Chi-square	DF	RMSEA	CFI
PattHigh	675.603	329	.056	.963
PattLow	687.940	329	.059	.951
Difference	012.337	0	.003	.012

In order to determine whether or not there is invariance across the groups, several parameters have to be compared. AMOS was used for this purpose. The Chi-square, although sensitive to sample size, can be taken as an indicator of invariance. If there is no significant difference, the model can be considered as equivalent across the two groups (Byrne, 1998). The given Chi-square suggested a difference of 12.337 with an equivalent degree of freedom (329). Byrne (2001) suggests that also the RMSEA and CFI can be important indicators of invariance. In both cases, the difference was minimal with 0.03 and 0.012 respectively. This is within the suggested range of 0.05 difference by Little (1997). These findings suggest that the measurement model was invariant across respondents with high and low place attachment. The moderating effect of the variable can thus be investigated.

Next, it was investigated whether or not low and high levels of place attachment has a significant impact on the previously confirmed positive relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB intentions (H5) in the structural model and a test using critical ratios for differences was run, which displays a critical ratio for each pair of parameter estimates. However, following the hypotheses only the ratio on H5 was considered (see Table 5.14.).

Table 5.14. Moderating effect of place attachment on H5 (H9)

Path	PattHigh		PattLow			Result
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P	z-score	
bab <--- att	0.288	0.000	0.307	0.000	0.243	**Not Supported**

After testing the moderating relationship of high and low levels of place attachment on the positive relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB intentions, the z-score of 0.243 s hows that no significant differences among the two groups could be found. Subsequently, hypotheses nine (H9) was not supported.

5.6. Coding of open-ended question

Following the quantitative data analysis, finally the data obtained from the open ended question was coded. As it was found that most of the respondents answered the question with maximum one sentence, or mostly only one adjective or word, a frequency count was found applicable as a first step for data coding. Before concluding the frequency of a theme, researchers have first to check the data for synonyms (Stemler, 2001). Finally, it was found that most respondents had answered the questions at least partially, and four major themes have been identified, namely (1) representation of local culture, (2) democracy/freedom, (3) benefits, and (4) enhance image of Hong Kong (see figure 5.6.):

Out of the identified codes, 'benefits' by far the most mentioned one. Respondents stated that, in order for them to show BAB, they should perceive that they personally and

Hong Kong on a larger scale, benefit from the brand. It was highlighted that, especially due to the individual travel scheme for mainland Chinese, the city became heavily congested and overcrowded. Accordingly, by choosing a more sustainable target group for the brand this could partly be avoided. Economic benefits were also often mentioned. On a personal level, residents suggested that competitions or coupons might be an effective tool to spur BAB intentions. On a higher level, they also mentioned that the brand should be beneficial for the economy of Hong Kong in general, so residents would get more motivated to support it.

Next, democracy and freedom was seen as a major concern. Residents mentioned that they perceive their ability to participate as a manifesto of freedom, a concept very similar to psychological empowerment. Nonetheless, in this case it was aimed more specifically at the 'One country, Two systems' policy, where Hong Kong retains higher levels of democracy than mainland China. Accordingly it was suggested that the brand of Hong Kong should act as a catalyst, if not enhancer, of these democratic ideas as this would also motivate residents to show related BAB.

The next code, according to the frequency counts, was a 'proper' representation of local culture. While this has partly been covered by the self-congruity concept in this research, residents have suggested that not only should the brand be representative of the local culture, but locals should perceive it as being strengthening and conserving the specific identity of Hong Kong. Various respondents ousted their fears that Hong Kong would be culturally 'absorbed' by mainland China, and that, if the brand would be able to preserve the international identity of Hong Kong, they would be willing to support it.

On the other hand, residents also suggested that identity should not only be preserved, but also the image of Hong Kong should be enhanced outside of the country. This means that, not only should the brand message be congruent with the local personality traits, but should highlight Hong Kong's uniqueness as destination, as well as its competitiveness on the global market. This was found as another possible antecedent of residents' BAB.

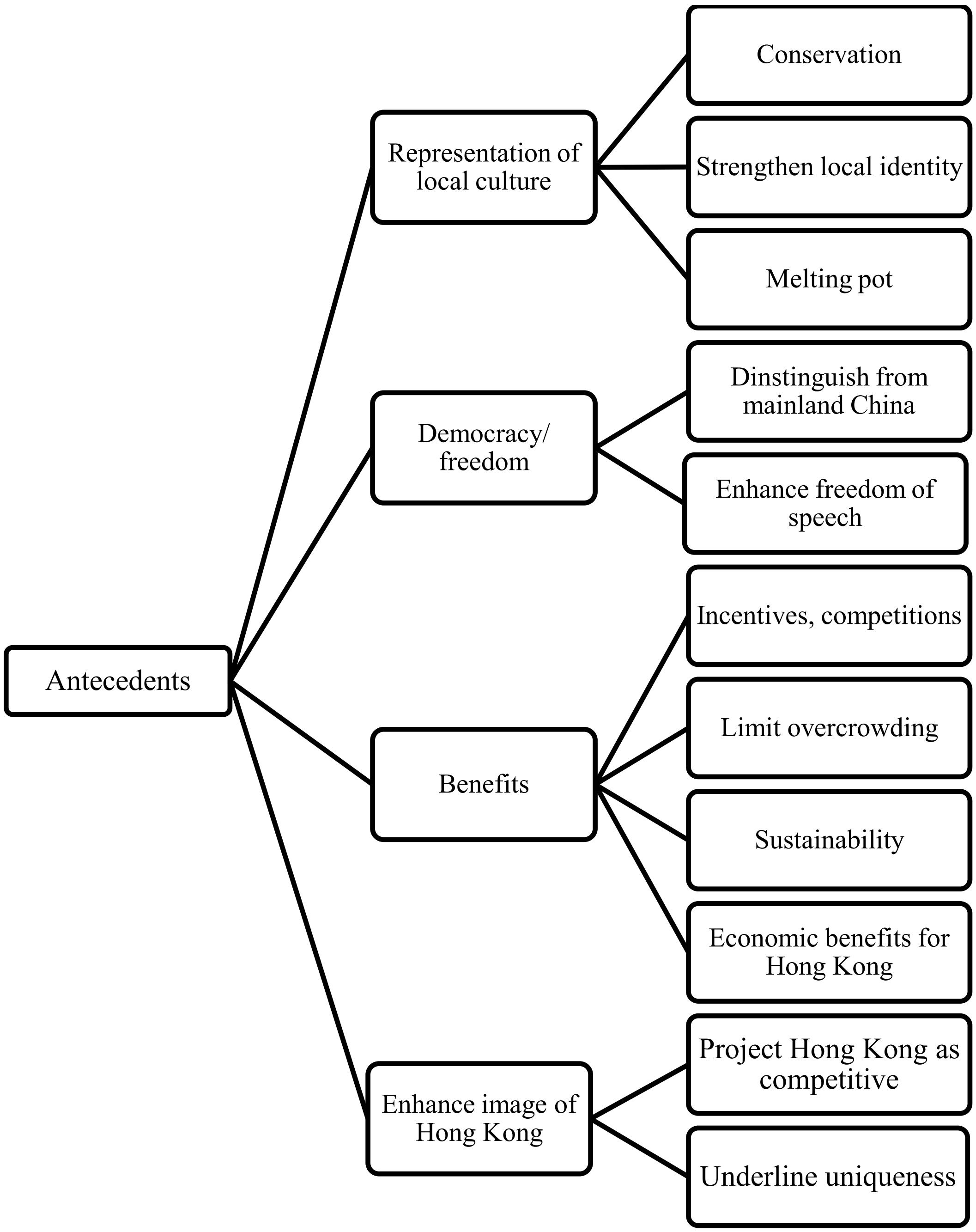

Figure 5.6. Coding of open-ended questions

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION

FOREWORD

This chapter discusses the research findings in relation to the proposed research objectives and research questions. First, the main goal of this study, i.e. the proposed framework for residents' destination BAB, will be discussed. Relationships among the constructs are reviewed and a comparison to previous knowledge is made. Next, research findings specific to the context of Hong Kong and the 'Asia's World City' brand will be discussed. This will lead to the contributions of the study, i.e. theoretical and practical contributions, as well as practical implications for DMOs and branding authorities.

6.1. The proposed model

The main objective of this study was to 'to propose and empirically test a framework explaining the antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior.' This has resulted in a proposed model with five main latent variables and one moderator variable. All of the constructs have been borrowed from previous literature, with only the BAB intentions construct being partly self-developed by borrowing items from related studies. Scale validation in the pilot test has further confirmed that the constructs are stable and robust in this specific context. Cross-validation of the main data set had suggested furthermore that the chosen measurements also hold across different populations. Finally, the overall model has shown excellent results for validity and reliability, as well as for generalizability. Furthermore, in the structural model it w as found that the identified antecedents of residents' destination BAB are able to explain 80% of the variance in the construct. These extremely good results can be attributed to two factors.

First, most of the items used to measure the latent variables have been previously used in other contexts. Previous studies have shown the adopted constructs to be valid, with brand attitude showing a Cronbach's alpha of 0.954 (Hohenstein et al., 2007), self-congruity 0.965 (Hohenstein et al., 2007), psychological empowerment 0.770 (Propst & Jeong, 2012), public trust 0.850 (Nunkoo et al., 2012) and place attachment 0.960 (Lee et al., 2012). The composite reliability of the constructs in the structural model has been similarly high, with brand attitude showing composite reliability of 0.937, self-congruity, 0.961, psychological empowerment 0.882 and public trust 0.933. As the reliability for place attachment was rated high in literature, this construct was not verified as it was used merely as a moderator in this study. In addition, the newly developed construct BAB intentions has shown an outstanding composite reliability of 0.958.

Second, the measurement items have been validated a-priori as recommended by Churchill Jr. (1979). In order to test the validity of the included constructs, a two-step procedure, namely a qualitative pre-study consisting of in-depth interviews and an expert panel, have been chosen. In an age of paradigm shift and an increasing focus on Asia in the field of tourism studies, Western theories are not always applicable to the new context (Kong & Cheung, 2009). Nonetheless, the literature which has been consulted to develop the framework had resulted as fitting to the context of Hong Kong, as the respondents of the qualitative pre-study have suggested. Only minor amendments had been made in this stage, i.e. several measurement items suggested by the HKPRs have been added. The panel of expert also had no major concerns about the applicability of the model to an Asian context.

In addition to the models' 80% high explanatory power of the variance in the BAB intentions construct, also eight of the nine proposed hypotheses were supported with a p-value of less than 0.05. Only the proposed moderating effect of place attachment on the positive relationship among residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB intentions was not supported, as groups with high and low place attachment have shown no significant difference in strength on this supported pathway. A cross-validation of the model across two randomly split groups of respondents has also suggested that the model is stable across different populations. It can thus be concluded that the main objective of the study has been reached and a structural model with a high ability to predict residents' destination BAB intentions has been proposed.

6.2. Residents' destination brand attitude

Although brand attitude has been extensively researched, studies focusing on residents' destination brand attitude had been found to be highly limited. The original four-item scale adopted from Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) as well as Hohenstein et al. (2007) was extended to a five-item scale after the qualitative pre-study (added item att5). Respondents had suggested that they were largely concerned about how Hong Kong is being projected to the outside world, i.e. how the destination brand promotes Hong Kong for foreigners. This item was most likely not included in the original scale, as taking the residents' perspective on destination branding is different from another stakeholders' point of view in terms of representation concerns. Also, the fact that the study was held in a Hongkongese context may have contributed to this concern. 'Face' management is a major issue in the Chinese culture, so far as Monfret (2011, p.14) claims that 'understanding the concept of face enables us to get an insight into a big part of Chinese culture, as the two are closely linked'. Accordingly, making a good impression is of major importance in this specific cultural context. On the same line of though, one respondent in the qualitative pre-study had stated that '*if you like the part of Hong Kong that is promoted, then you would participate (in the branding process)*'. The pilot study has re-validated the construct, including the new item, in the context of Hong Kong. Although the concept of face is strong in Asia, similar concerns had been raised by scholars in other contexts (e.g. Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a).

All five of the items had been found to be significant, with a total construct Cronbach's alpha of .935. Subsequently, all items were retained for the main study. The split-study PCA on the holdout sample has yielded similar positive results, with a value of .925, suggesting the modified construct to be reliable and valid. The validity of the construct was also found to be higher if the att5 is retained than if it would be cancelled.

Residents' destination brand attitude was confirmed to be an important construct in the structural model. Although it was not the main focus of this research, the model managed to predict 49% of residents' destination brand attitude variance, based on the antecedents of self-congruity, psychological empowerment and public trust. Several studies in other contexts had suggested that attitude is highly influenced by perceptions of congruity (e.g. Freling & Forbes, 2005; Hohenstein et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2008; Sirgy et al., 1991; Kressmann et al., 2006). This was found to be true also in the context of residents and destination brands. Indeed, the structural model has shown that brand self-congruity is the strongest predictor of residents' destination brand attitude. Nonetheless, also the empowerment and public trust have been confirmed as being predictors of this construct. Empowerment had been hypothesized earlier to have a significant impact on residents destination brand attitude (e.g. Bennett & Savani, 2003; Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Zenker & Seigis, 2012), and the same was done for public trust (e.g. Nunkoo et al., 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). That Hong Kong falls under a highly power-distant and collectivist culture (The Hofstede Centre, 2013), did not change this detail. Also residents' destination brand attitude was found to be positively related to residents' BAB intentions, for both, residents with high and low place attachment. As BAB intentions was a newly developed construct, there was no overall confirmation of this link before, but similar authors had suggested similar findings in other fields of study (e.g. Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Scott & Clark, 2006). Subsequently, the proposed model not only has decent results in predicting residents' destination brand attitude, but also validates the importance of this construct as a predictor of residents' destination BAB intentions.

6.3. Residents' destination brand self-congruity

In tourism studies there has been a vivid debate on how to effectively measure self-congruity (e.g. Litvin & Goh, 2002; Kastenholz, 2004). While some scholars had hypothesized the importance of self-image in relation to residents and destination brands (e.g. Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012), it had not been wholly measured in this context. Hohenstein et al. (2007) had proposed measurement items for a holistic concept of self-congruity. Respondents of the qualitative pre-study had largely agreed on the importance of the congruity concept in explaining BAB, and one item was added (con9), reflecting the perceived congruity among the overall population of Hong Kong and the brand. In the particular context of Hong Kong, several interviewees had highlighted that they want to project an image of the Hong Kong people as '*different from Mainland China*', and some respondents had found the brand to have an excessively Chinese undertone (see Chapter 4.5.1.). Finally, the original items of the scale were retained for the pilot test and an additional item was added, summing up to a total of nine.

After the pilot test, six out of eight items were retained as they were found to be significant. The total Cronbach's alpha value of the construct summed up to a greatly satisfactory .946. Another PCA was run with the holdout sample in the main study and the composite reliability of the construct was again excellent at .963. The first item deleted was con1. Although conceptually similar to the other items retained, the first item used the wording '*completely identify*', which might have been too strong for the respondents and its translation to traditional Chinese might have strengthened this issue. Also, the newly added item con8 was dropped due to low factor loadings. A possible reason is that the self-image is highly a highly complex concept (Sirgy, 1980; 1982) and the issue of reflecting the self-image of the overall population of Hong Kong might be too difficult to assess for individual residents.

In the structural model, residents' destination brand self-congruity was found to be a highly important construct in its ability to predict residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB intentions. As mentioned earlier, self-congruity was found to be the strongest predictor of brand attitude in the model, confirming the high importance of perceived representation of residents within destination brands (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides 2012a; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b). In addition to this, self-congruity was also found to be the strongest predictor of residents' destination BAB intentions in the model. Its influence on pos itive behavioral intentions towards brands had been suggested in other contexts (e.g. Abdallat, 2009; 2012; Bosnjak et al., 2011; Kastenholz, 2004), this study confirms the congruity concepts importance in the field of residents and destination branding. As a result, the proposed has validated the self-congruity construct as an important predictor of residents' BAB intentions.

6.4. Residents' destination brand psychological empowerment

Regarding the psychological empowerment dimension, a five item scale by Propst and Jeong (2012) had been adopted. Although the scale had been used in a highly similar context (Brand Michigan), two of the five items were dropped in the initial pilot study PCA. The three items retained showed anyhow satisfactory factor loadings with a pilot Crobach's alpha of .868. and a CR of .882 in the main data. The first item cancelled was concerned with 'understanding' the surrounding issues of the brand. Although the scale had been previously verified, this item seems to be different from the others, as it is not concerned with possibilities to participate but rather with knowledge in regard. The second item which has been cancelled was concerned with political participation and its influence on the brand. The fact that these items have not been retained in this context is likely to be cultural. According to cultural research studies, Hong Kong is a highly power-distant culture, deeply rooted in Confucian tradition (The Hofstede Centre, 2013). According to the Hofstede Centre (2013), in power-distant cultures one is expected to have a place within a certain hierarchy and actions of superiors do not need further justification. Thus, the concept of knowledge regarding the brand might not be central in this context, as responsible authorities expected to deal with them. Also, political participation has been rooted in Western culture for long time, while this is not a typical historical trait in a Chinese context (Townsend, 1969).

Nonetheless, residents' destination brand psychological empowerment was found to have a significant impact on both, residents' destination brand attitude and residents' BAB intentions. Also, psychological empowerment was found to be positively related to public trust in destination brand authorities. In the context of corporate branding, psychological empowerment has been shown as being positively related to employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Logan & Ganster, 2007). Residents are often compared with employees of a company, as they are the ones who fulfill a destination brand promise (Hospers, 2010; Mitchell, 2002). The results of this study suggest that, similar to regular employees, residents also react positively to psychological empowerment in the case of destination branding. The retained items in the construct furthermore suggest that in this specific context the feeling of being able to participate in public brand decisions, e.g. through elections, is important for residents in order to feel empowered. In the qualitative pre-study it was found that there is an ongoing struggle for universal suffrage in Hong Kong (see Chapter 4.5.1.), and that even the logo of the 'Asia's World City' brand had been mockingly transformed into the Chinese characters for 'Universal suffrage' during a protest. The findings suggest that this concept is also important when mirrored to residents' relationship with a destination brand. The proposed model subsequently has validated the importance of residents' destination brand psychological empowerment as a predictor of residents' destination brand attitude and BAB intentions.

6.5. Residents' trust in destination brand authorities

Similar to psychological empowerment, public trust is a psychological status which is concerned with beliefs towards a partner (Nguyen & Rose, 2009). The original three-item scale adapted from Nunkoo et al. (2012) had undergone significant levels of change during the validation of the measurement items. First, respondents in the qualitative pre-study had suggested that there is more to public trust than just the original items proposed. First, as this study operates in a tourism context, respondents were concerned whether or not the brand was designed by the authorities to attract the most beneficial category of tourists. In the interviews it w as mentioned that '*the brand targets mainly Mainland tourists*' while '*Western and other countries are not being effectively attracted to Hong Kong*'. The item tru4 was thus added to take this into account. Next, whether or not the brand has been developed to benefit the residents of Hong Kong was ousted as a major concern. Measurement item tru5 had been added for this purpose. These two items were found to be specifically applicable to residents and destination brand. The panel of experts also suggested amendments in the construct, giving the advice to specifically mention the tourism board instead of the more ambiguous '*authorities*'. All five items were found to be significant in the pilot test with a Cronbach's alpha of .941 and in the main study with a CR of .930. Also, the single items loaded highly in the construct and no significant changes in validity were suggested if the two newly introduced items would be cancelled.

The model confirmed the hypothesis that psychological empowerment are two strongly related concepts (Cook et al., 2005; Freitag & Bühlmann, 2009). In fact, it was found that the positive relationship from empowerment and trust is highly significant at a weight of .510. Interestingly, the mean score for the empowerment items was higher than the ones for measuring trust. One respondent in the qualitative pre-study had suggested that '*trust in the authorities had never been as low as it is now in Hong Kong*'. In the structural model, empowerment was furthermore found to predict 26% of the variance in the public trust construct, suggesting that the importance of psychological empowerment in establishing public trust also holds throughout power-distant cultures. Several scholars had suggested that residents' can be positively affected to show supporting behavior through public trust (e.g. Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Rudoph & Evans, 2005), as well as the positive effect of trust on attitude (e.g. Hetherington & Husser, 2012). Both of these hypotheses were confirmed in the structural model. Hence, the importance of trust in destination brand authorities was validated as an important antecedent of residents' brand attitude and BAB intention in the proposed model.

6.6. Residents' BAB intentions

This study has conceptualized residents' BAB as the ultimate goal of targeting residents' as an internal stakeholder with a destination brand. Several reflections of BAB have been identified in literature and conceptualized as intentions, among which WOM and eWOM, participation, development and use of promotional material. This has resulted in a new variable with initial 15 proposed items. Several amendments have been made to the construct after the qualitative pre-study and the panel of experts. First, the wordings 'Given the chance...' were added as the prefix for multiple items. This was done due to the fact that most respondents were not aware that they could actually fulfill some of their BAB intentions. It was not much a lack of brand awareness thus which was found as an obstacle for Hong Kong residents, but rather the lack of awareness regarding their possibilities to show ambassador behavior (e.g. the existence of promotional material, the existence of online-contests etc.).

To further understand the construct, the panel of experts suggested to further explain the word brand development, as awareness of possibilities to do so was generally deemed as scarce. Also, it was suggested to reverse-code some items as a long list of positively formed questions could induce a positive response bias. As a result, two measurement items of BAB intentions were reverse-coded (bab8 & bab11). After the pilot test, the original 15 items were reduced to a final nine. The variable in its final form was found to be reliable and valid in the pilot test (Cronbach's alpha .952), holdout sample (Cronbach's alpha .958) as well as the full data set (CR .958). All the times retained in the full data had a factor loading above 0.8, w hich is highly satisfactory.

Conceptually, eWOM was found to be stronger associated with BAB than traditional WOM, as all the related items were dropped in the pilot test. There might be several reasons for this. First, it is believed that eWOM involves a more structured and logical process of thought than traditional WOM (Griffin, 2003). In other words, online posts are usually better conceptualized and more thought of than spontaneous person-to-person communications. As the brand in this study has been conceptualized as a deliberately created and most of all complex phenomenon (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012), it is believed that online posts can be a better catalyst for brand-diffusion than spontaneous WOM. Also, the conceptualization of destination brand includes its tangible representations, such as graphic design (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012). Most likely these can easier be shared on t he online world. The validity of eWOM related items for the BAB construct also reinforces the notion that the internet is an increasing platform of opportunity for DMOs (Braun et al., 2013) and is likely to reach a large number of audiences (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). With exception of the two reverse-coded items, all other measurement scales were found to be a valid and reliable measure of residents' BAB intentions, suggesting that these can indeed be reflected through intentions to aid in promotion, development and use of promotional materials. Investigating the factor loadings of the items, it was found that they are of very similar importance. The lowest factor loading ranks from .803 in bab7 ('I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand related events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions)') to the highest in bab9 .858 ('Given the chance, I would contribute to the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand's development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities)". This suggests that all of the retained items are valid reflections of BAB intentions and that there is not much difference in their weight explaining the construct.

6.7. Relationships in the final model

6.7.1. Linear relationships

Finally, the proposed model was found to explain 80% of the BAB intentions variance, suggesting that the identified and conceptualized antecedents are valid in the context of residents and destination brands. These results can be deemed as highly satisfactory, considering the large amount of variance explained.

Furthermore, all of the proposed linear relationships have been found to be highly significant. Residents' brand self-congruity has been found to be the strongest predictor of both, residents' destination brand attitude and residents' destination BAB intentions. Although self-congruity is not yet widely researched in the tourism context (Boksberger et al., 2011; Litvin & Goh, 2002), its importance has also been confirmed in the context of residents and destination brands. While self-congruity was found to reduce feelings of risk, create a vivid reference and enhance sensations of comfort in consumer studies (Haigood, 1999; Upshaw, 1995), the importance of residents' self-image in destination branding had often been mentioned (e.g. Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a; b) but not widely been researched. In the final model, self-congruity was found to be an even stronger direct predictor of BAB intentions than brand attitude, while it also confirmed that congruity with the brand is likely to influence brand attitude strongly. This is in line with Braun et al. (2010) as well as Hankinson's

(2004) claim that residents are part of the branded product and their identity representation is a very sensitive issue. In the case of Hong Kong this indicates that residents which can recognize themselves in the 'Asia's World City' brand are more likely to evaluate it positively and show intentions for BAB. Considering the strong positive relationship among these constructs, residents' self-congruity with the destination brand should certainly be taken seriously by DMOs.

Brand psychological empowerment and public trust in destination brand authorities have been proposed as antecedents of both, brand attitude and BAB intentions. First of all, the positive relationship among psychological empowerment and public trust was found to be highly valid in the context of residents and destination brands. Trust and power have been frequently treated as two intrinsically related concepts (Freitag & Bühlmann, 2009). Cook et al. (2005) as well as Nunkoo et al. (2012) had mentioned that public distrust is often caused by perceived power inequality. Although psychological empowerment only explains 26% of the variance in the trust construct, the strong linear relationship among the two concepts suggests that this is also valid in the highly power-distant context of Hong Kong (The Hofstede Centre, 2013). Past studies had hypothesized that psychological empowerment might be an antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude (e.g. Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Zenker & Seigis, 2012) but had not tested this empirically. While it was found to predict brand attitude in this study, its direct relationship with BAB intentions resulted as even stronger. In a Western context, Eshuis and Edwards (2012) had suggested that empowered residents would feel 'owners' of their destination brand and thus make efforts to make it succeed. In this case, residents

BAB can thus be compared to working behavior of a companies' employees, which has shown to be positively fuelled by psychological empowerment (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Public trust has shown to influence residents' attitudes and support in political studies (e.g. Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Rehmet and Dinnie (2013) had suggested that the perception of a brand as being beneficial can directly inspire BAB. The findings of the pre-study had confirmed this, by adding related items to the construct. Also, the positive relationship among trust and brand attitude, as well as BAB has been confirmed. Especially in power distant cultures like Hong Kong, trust in authorities plays an important role (The Hofstede Centre, 2013) and the final model has validated its importance in the context of residents and destination brands.

Last, the direct effect of brand attitude on BAB intentions has been investigated. The pathway leading from attitude to intentions or behavior has been widely acknowledged in academic studies (e.g. Ajzen, 1985; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Olson & Zanna, 1993). In the context of residents' and BAB behavior, brand attitude has been the most widely cited possible antecedent (e.g. Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Kemp, Childers et al., 2012; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). While self-congruity, psychological empowerment and public trust were effectively able to explain 49% of the variance in the brand attitude construct in the final model, also its positive relationship with BAB intentions was confirmed. With a strength of .255 it was only second to the direct influence of self-congruity on the BAB intentions variable. It is thus of vital importance for DMOs to find a reasonable level of agreement of the general public about their brand development and implementation. This will not only avoid the often cited consequences of negative brand attitudes (e.g. Braun et al., 2013), but can also transform residents into a valuable asset as brand ambassadors.

In addition to the discussed linear relationship, residents' place attachment has been proposed as a possible moderator for the relationship among brand attitude and BAB intentions. This hypothesis is discussed next.

6.7.2. Moderating effects

Place attachment was proposed as a moderating variable on the linear relationship between residents' brand attitude and residents' BAB intentions. Past studies had mentioned that residents with high levels of place attachment are more likely to effectively engage into efforts for their relevant residence (e.g. Brown et al., 2003; Dekker, 2007; Kelly & Hosking, 2007; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013).

Nonetheless, in the final model found no significant difference in the pathway among attitude and BAB intentions was found among respondent groups with high and low level of place attachment. The reasons therefore might be the definition of brand chosen. Conceptually, the destination brand has been defined in this study as being tangible and deliberately created (Cai et al., 2009; Eshuis & Klijn, 2012). This definition has been chosen as a destination brand, when conceptualized in this way, is more easy to be manipulated by the responsible authorities (Boo et al., 2009; Mohsin, 2005). Most scholars which have mentioned the importance of place attachment in this context, have anyhow chosen a different definition of brand, i.e. the brand is synonymous with destination image (e.g. Campelo et al., 2014; Chen & Dwyer, 2010; Chen et al., 2012;

Ramkissoon et al., 2013). Indeed, the general image that residents have of their place of living is largely non controllable by DMOs (Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011; Schroder, 1996; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). If destination brand is thus defined as synonymous with the destination and not as a promotional tool, place attachment to a certain location would seem more likely to trigger behavioral intentions than in the case of a symbolic destination brand. In other words, residents who are not highly attached to the place they live in can still show BAB intentions towards a brand if they have a positive attitude towards it. The behavioral intentions which are thus triggered by attitude, self-congruity, empowerment and trust are in this context not dependent on r esidents' place attachment. This can lead DMOs towards a more practical approach to residents in the destination branding process and less towards considering residents as a hard-to-handle and excessively complex stakeholder as suggested in the past (e.g. Holcomb, 1999).

6.8. Discussion of additional findings

6.8.1. The case of 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'

In addition to the finalized structural model, several findings specific to the case of Hong Kong have emerged during the qualitative pre-study and in light of the open-ended question.

Generally, most of the respondents were reasonably familiar with the brand in terms of the used logo and slogan. According to the respondents a main reason therefore was the brand was, especially in its early stages, vividly discussed in the media. Donald and Gammack (2007) had also pointed out the initial polemics in the local media in the first decade of the new millennium. One respondent affirmed that '*when the logo fist came out, there was lots of criticism about it. The design is not good or anything.. but when time went by people started getting used to it*'. Awareness was generally good and it was even noticed that the dragon logo had been used in recent manifestations for universal suffrage '*last year, or one year before, when the Hong Kong people were fighting for universal suffrage, they changed the logo into the Chinese characters for universal suffrage and it's like the dragon, similar to its style*'.

Although respondents were sufficiently aware of the brand, the proposed brand ambassador programs offered by the Hong Kong Tourism Board during recent years (see Chapter 1) were largely unknown. In fact, none of the interviewees had ever heard about the 'myhk2020' initiative and none of them was aware that residents had been consulted for the brand rejuvenation (Fleishman-Hillard Hong Kong Ltd. and Taylor Nelson Sofres, 2010). When asked about willingness to engage with the brand, one respondent answered that '*the government did not notify us that we can. Platforms are there but we don't know. Many of us don't use internet, only the well-educated. Middle aged and poor people don't know about this. The platform is not accessible, but people would help for sure*'.

Some advice was also given on how to solve this issue. First, the poorer substrata of Hong Kong was mentioned as not being sufficiently aware and involved in the branding process. One respondent said that '*The tourism board could arrange some visits to low-income families in poor areas, such as Sham Shui Po. They can do this and even cooperate with students, I mean primary or secondary school. That is very good*'.

Another respondent said that through involving the low-income strata of Hong Kong residents in the branding process, there is also a chance for poverty alleviation '*Some poor people live in coffin-houses. Money wise, if they are allowed to be visited, if the Tourism Board can give them money for this, even in the form of a coupon, they will become more available to participate. Don't ask the tourists to pay, the government subsidizes, then the society will benefit from it'*. Also respondents suggested to use traditional media, such as newspapers and TV to inform residents about the brand. Many people don't have access to the internet regularly or don't have time to check websites.

A particular trait, which most respondents appeared to be missing in the brand was representation of the distinct local culture. This was reinforced by the strong relationship of self-congruity to both, brand attitude and BAB intentions (See Chapter 5). One respondent said that, for involving residents the Tourism Board should '*focus more on traditional culture because Hong Kong is promoted as a shopping paradise. Such a promotion could increase the number of traditional shops and avoid loss of our traditional culture*'. Traditional culture was often explained as '*East meets West*' and '*different from mainland China*'.

Mainland China, in fact, also emerged as a topic which is often connected to the Hong Kong brand. One respondent explained that '*if Hong Kong is Asia's World City the brand should not promote too much for Chinese tourists, but we also need long-haul more than short-haul tourists. The cultural issue with mainland tourists is also annoying. Their habits really destroy Hong Kong as a whole*'. Another stated that '*Hong Kong is quite concentrating to promote itself to mainland China; the Hong Kong Tourism Board* *promotes us mainly for them. I anyhow think that the Hong Kong Tourism Board could make some efforts to promote the city to tourists which are not from mainland*.' It thus seemed that often showing BAB would have lowered the perceived quality of life of Hong Kong residents, as it would attract more tourists from mainland China which, in turn, raises cultural and environmental issues for the city.

In summary, respondents suggested that the main issues perceived regarding 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' is the lack of cultural representation of the residents and the perceived target group being mainland Chinese tourists. In addition there was a lack of awareness regarding the ambassador programs that the government had launched in the past. This can be bridged by focusing on other tools of advertisement such as newspapers or local TV channels. Generally, most respondents anyhow showed positive feelings towards showing BAB.

6.8.2. Other possible antecedents of residents' brand ambassador behavior

An open-ended question concerning the identification of other possible antecedents of residents BAB has been added to the main survey and thus 650 responses were given, of which 632 were found to be at least partly valid.

Four main themes have emerged from the data, suggesting four more possible antecedents of residents' BAB. First, perceived benefits were mentioned as a major enhancer. Rehmet and Dinnie (2013) had suggested similar findings in their case study of the Berlin brand and similar concerns had arisen in the qualitative pre-study, resulting in the addition of two items to the construct of public trust (tru4 & tru5). Both of the items were indeed found to be significant in the quantitative data analysis (see Chapter 5). Nonetheless, the coding of the open-ended question suggests that more attention should be paid to this issue in future studies, especially in terms of perceived personal benefits, community benefits and sustainability. Andereck, Valentine, Knopf and Vogt (2005) had suggested previously that perceived benefits enhance residents' attitudes, especially if they are involved in tourism. Nonetheless, the concern about negative impacts, i.e. sustainability was found to be stable across all groups of residents. In the specific context of destination branding, perceived benefits could thus be considered as an important possible antecedent of residents' destination brand attitude and BAB in future research.

Next, representation of local culture was found to be important, but not only in terms of self-congruity. Residents were concerned with the conservation of their local identity as a melting pot, rather than being 'absorbed' into a bigger picture of China. In extremis, it was suggested that a destination brand should be able to strengthen the local identity. Donald and Gammack (2007) had suggested that the complexity of Hong Hong culture is hard to be branded effectively, but in this case most respondents seem to agree that they want the brand to preserve 'traditional' values, such as openness and international orientation. The issue in how far BAB is spurred not only by self-congruity, but also by perceived conservation and strengthening of local identity is yet to be explored.

Similar, but yet different, is the finding of perceived 'image-enhancing' of the destination brand. The concern of how locals are represented by their brand lies on the very core of residents and destination brands (e.g. Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; Kalandides, 2012a). Nonetheless, this research has approached this aspect from a self-congruity perspective, i.e. if locals feel realistically represented by the brand, an antecedent which was found to be highly significant (see Chapter 5). Respondents anyhow suggest that there is also an economic aspect to the image representation (project Hong Kong as being competitive), while also 'face' concerns might play a role in this context (Monfret; 2011). Further studies could investigate thus especially the concept of 'ideal self-congruity' (e.g. Abdallat, 2009; 2012; Sirgy, 1980; 1982) as a possible antecedent of residents' BAB.

Again, a conflict with mainland China has emerged as a further issue. While previously residents had expressed their frequent annoyance with tourists from mainland China, and this had ultimately resulted in the addition of an additional item in the trust construct (tru4), the specific aspect of enhancing democracy and freedom has emerged as a possible antecedent of BAB. As such, the brand was expected not only to portray a distinct identity for Hong Kong, but also act as a catalyst for freedom of speech. While the lack of perceived empowerment has been shown to be an issue in related studies (e.g. Eshuis & Edwards, 2012; García et al., 2012), there is no s tudy concerned with the importance of political ideologies in showing residents' BAB. This could be considered as a possible antecedent and should be further investigated.

6.9. Significance and contributions of the study

The significance of this study is based on the fact that at its utmost, it examines the notion of residents' destination BAB. Although acknowledged as being the ultimate goal for targeting residents with destination brands, residents' destination BAB is still widely under-researched by scholars and therefore hard to be stimulated by practitioners. Considering the fact that in practical destination branding more attention is being paid to residents as a destination brand stakeholder, this gives both, a valuable contribution to destination marketers, as well as filling a significant and persistent research gap in literature.

6.9.1. Theoretical contributions

Although mentioned in several recent studies, residents' destination BAB is still a blurry concept. Even though its importance has been suggested by several scholars and marketers, no study up to date dedicates itself to finding a sound definition and identifies behavioral intentions which effectively reflect residents' destination BAB. This study has analyzed literature meticulously in order to identify how the concept has been defined in past research, how it has been used and which types of ambassador behavior have emerged. The final model proposes a holistic construct of BAB intentions. BAB intentions has been conceptualized and tested through several of its reflections which have been identified in literature. Finally, intentions of eWOM, participation in brand related events and activities, participation in brand development and use of promotional material have been verified as reflections of BAB intentions. This firstly aids not only the definition of BAB, which in previous studies had not been sufficiently addressed, but also opens the door for further research on t he concept. It is believed that there was a significant research gap related to the conceptualization and definition of BAB and, by giving a critical overview of past literature as well as testing the construct, this research has given a valuable theoretical contribution to the field of destination branding in terms of conceptualization of the notion.

Next, previous to this study there was virtually no model explaining the antecedents of residents' BAB intentions when considering the brand as a deliberate construct. Past studies often focus only on a limited concept of ambassador behavior, which is often not related to the brand but rather to the destination itself. It is believed that the reason therefore was the persisting confusion among the use of destination brand as synonymous with destination image. By proposing a model which effectively shows the antecedents of residents' destination BAB related to the brand as a marketing effort by the responsible entities, it is understood that the involvement of contextual factors not related to the branding efforts, such as quality of life or community attachment, have been limited in the investigation of the antecedents. In fact, place attachment was not found relevant as a moderator in the model. This has resulted in a credible and tangible framework explaining a total of 80% variance in the BAB construct, highly focused on the brand, and able to highlight the economic benefits and malleable causality of residents' destination BAB. By developing the framework, a long persisting and only recently discussed gap in research has been filled. In light of this results, it is worth to discuss each of the verified antecedents separately in terms of what this research has contributed.

First, self-congruity was found to play an important role for the resident stakeholder in the destination branding process. Although self-congruity is a reasonably well employed concept in tourism studies, only a very limited number of researchers had previously connected the concept to the resident stakeholder of a brand (e.g. Choo & Park, 2009; Choo et al., 2011). While the congruity concept had been shown to influence tourists' brand related attitude and behavior (e.g. Chon, 1992; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011), this study provides empirical evidence that this is the case also for the resident stakeholder. Not only was this effect empirically verified, it was also shown that self-congruity is indeed the strongest antecedent of BAB intentions. This opens the door for a wholly new application of the congruity concept in the field of tourism, highlighting its high level of importance for internal stakeholders in the destination branding process.

Psychological empowerment as a concept had also found only a very limited application in the field of residents and destination branding. Mainly employed in the field of corporate branding, i.e. psychological empowerment of employees, this study highlights the fact that this notion also applies to the field of tourism destination branding. In other words, the assumption that residents in part are to their home destination what 'employees are to a company' has been verified. Generally, past literature had often overlooked this fact due to the assumed complexity of the resident stakeholder. Also, this study shows that locals do indeed want to feel empowered in the branding process. These findings are reinforced by the fact that the study was held in a collectivist and power-distant destination, namely Hong Kong, where the notion of empowerment is traditionally assumed not to be of major importance. As the results have shown the multiple significance of psychological empowerment, in relation to brand attitude and BAB intentions, future studies on the subject are strongly suggested to take this into account.

Similarly, the notion of trust has been found to be significant in this case. While the previously established relationship among power and trust has been confirmed also by this study, the concept of public trust in destination brand authorities was confirmed to positively influence both, brand attitude and BAB intentions. While Braun et al. (2010; 2013) had conceptualized the possibility that residents indeed relate as 'citizens' to a destination brand, this research specifies that trust plays a major role in this relationship. In other words, if residents trust the brand developers and believe that the brand is beneficial, they are more likely to show a positive brand attitude and BAB intentions. It is therefore deemed as a major contribution to bring the concept of public trust into the field of destination branding, highlighting that studies should consider the relationship among residents and the branding entities in a similar way to traditional citizen-authority interactions.

Finally, this study shows empirically that positive brand attitude can indeed influence BAB intentions. While most past research had focused on the negative consequences of residents' negative brand attitude (e.g. counter-branding, public indignation), the results show the possible benefits of a positive brand attitude. This adds a significant concept to existing theory, namely the fact that residents are not only an ethical responsibility but also a possible benefactor for destination brand authorities. Residents' involvement in the destination branding process was typically considered an exclusively socio-cultural issue in past research. In other words, residents were considered more of a responsibility for the marketer rather than being considered as a potential source of business benefit or competitive advantage. Indeed most past studies are highly concerned with socio-cultural implications only, often portraying branding authorities as overpowering and hostile to the residents. By highlighting the possible economic benefits of residents’ destination BAB for a tourist destination and the relevant brand, this study has linked socio-cultural implications such as marketers’ ethical and moral responsibilities to potential competitive advantages such as contributions to destination brand equity. It is believed that by relating socio-cultural and economic implications a persisting divide in literature among these two concepts has been amended and that this contribution can open the door for further studies on positive residents' destination brand attitude and behavior.

This study furthermore considers a destination brand as a deliberate construct. In other words, a brand is considered as a phenomenon which is purposely created by branding authorities to add meaning and differentiate a particular destination through marketing efforts. This forms a contrast to a more abstract concept of destination brand which has emerged during the last years, often defining the brand as a subjective and intangible perception. Only a relatively small number of scholars have looked at destination branding from a more tangible point of view and the number of studies concerning residents’ destination BAB using a similar definition of a destination brand are almost nonexistent. It is believed that by investigating the concept of residents’ destination BAB related to the brand as a deliberate and tangible construct, a realistic and practically valuable model was developed, while also contributing to the evident gap in theory. Further research relating to residents and destination brands can build on these foundations and search a deeper understanding of what motivates residents' attitudes and behaviors in regard.

6.9.2. Practical contributions and practical implications

This study is particularly aimed at having practical implications for DMOs and other entities responsible for destination branding. Practitioners have widely recognized the importance to target internal stakeholders with destination brands, of which the residents are considered the biggest and most resourceful. As this practice is quite new there are anyhow now many success cases in practice and confusion on how to target residents effectively still persists. It is believed that by offering a model showing the antecedents of residents' destination BAB, DMOs will be able to develop internal branding campaigns which effectively aim at enhancing residents' acceptance of the brand and their willingness to participate in the brand development and implementation. Especially through a tangible and practical definition of destination brand as a symbolic construct, this study aims at a high level of practical applicability.

First, it is important to notice that residents of a tourist destination, contrary to employees of a corporation, are not bound b y contractual ties but rather fostered by communication linkages to the brand. Their acceptance of, alignment with the brand values and brand supporting behavior need to be stimulated in a different way than found in traditional corporate branding literature. In other words, the residents' perception of the destination brand is a core issue for positive brand related behavior and needs to be influenced by branding authorities. Possible means to communicate the destination brand internally are public presentations of the brand to internal stakeholders and groups of interest, internal advertising campaigns and online tools for internal brand promotion. Up to date, there was anyhow a lack of theoretical understanding what kind of factors influence positive resident destination brand attitude and subsequent BAB, which makes practical targeting of residents with a brand difficult. This study has subsequently explored the antecedents of residents' BAB, confirming self-congruity, psychological empowerment, public trust and brand attitude as valuable antecedents. For DMO's this means an insight on which factors should be incorporated and emphasized in destination branding efforts when targeting the residents as an internal destination brand stakeholder. Through the adoption of the identified antecedents when presenting a brand to residents, positive brand attitude and subsequent BAB can be encouraged. The benefits for DMO's are both, internal stability as well as gaining brand equity with external stakeholders through resident involvement. Self-congruity in particular has been identified as a strong antecedent of both, brand attitude and BAB intentions. DMOs can thus focus on this concept when targeting residents.

Second, since during the last years there have been several examples of residents' indignation with a destination brand and subsequent outrage or, in extremis, counter-branding campaigns, DMOs do not face only external competition but also internal instability related to the destination brand. As having residents' disagreeing with the branding efforts is extremely counter-productive for brand equity and subsequently also the tourism business, it is of major importance for marketers to gain further insight in how to develop adequate destination brands. By investigating residents' relationship with destination brands, this study has given a meaningful contribution for practitioners in order to avoid mistakes and subsequent loss of equity related to destination brands.

The brand 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' in its current status has been developed with the help and involvement of the residents. As branding authorities claim that the collaboration of the later will be fundamental also for the future of the brand, there is a need of research on how to make this possible. By looking into the specific case of Hong Kong, this research has, as a secondary goal, also aimed at giving a precise contribution aimed at Hong Kong branding authorities' efforts to maintain and possibly enhance the relationship among residents and the destination brand. Especially the qualitative pre-study has identified concepts specific to this context, such as increasing tourism from mainland China, concerns for universal suffrage and preservation of distinct Hong Kong identity.

Although the 'Hong Kong – Asia's World City' brand has been discussed in literature, there are had been no empirical studies specifically concerned with the relationship between the brand and the people of Hong Kong. Even though there have been wide government initiatives in order to bring the brand closer to the residents, there had been no academic follow-up in how far these efforts were successful. Furthermore, Hong Kong authorities have put effort into triggering residents' involvement in the branding process but to the knowledge of the researcher there is was study on whether or not this has been successful. Hence, this study hopes to have given a valuable theoretical contribution to the specific case of the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' destination brand, which leads to the following practical implications.

In order to highlight the practical implications of this research, one must first investigate how residents can influence the effectiveness of practical destination branding. Anholt (2009, p.8) states that for a destination brand to be truly successful, 'there must be harmony between the perceptions of both visitors and residents regarding the destination brand, in terms of the destination's key assets and the way in which it is presented in marketing communications'. Even if the main aim of destination branding is best described as attracting potential tourists, the residents' perspective on the brand should possibly enforce the external perspectives. Pride (2011) highlights through the case of the Welsh destination brand, that DMOs are in need of a domain brand, which leads all future strategies, communications and behaviors. This is reached through (1) positioning of all key stakeholders, (2) identify key value sets for each specific stakeholder, and (3) find core values for the overall brand which are communicated, still allowing some flexibility for each stakeholder. Although the residents as a destination brand stakeholder have increasingly got more attention, practical understanding of how to deal with them properly is still scarce (Cai, 2009).

This research has aimed at maximizing the relationship among residents and DMOs, by investigating what leads residents to become ambassadors of their destination brand. The identified antecedents can be of help for this issue. In order to give practical value to this study, DMOs can use the results in the formation of their destination brand strategy. The two main difficulties associated with strategy are in fact (1) reconciling the needs and desires of a wide range of national actors into a more or less single direction, and (2) finding a strategic goal that is both inspiring and feasible (Anholt, 2011, p. 26).

The findings of this research explain the relationship among needs and desires of residents in the context of their destination brand, highlighting especially the need for perceived self-congruity. According to Anholt (2011), identified needs and desires can be incorporated into the destination branding strategy through substance (economic, legal, political, social, cultural and educational activities), as well as symbolic actions (innovations, structures, legislations, reforms, investments, institutions or policies).

In other words, if DMOs understand what drives residents to judge their destination brand in a certain way and what inspires them to show BAB initiatives can be taken which emphasize these assets in the branding strategy. If authorities understand what has a positive impact on their destination brand, funds can be allocated to enhance these certain factors (Kotler & Gertner, 2011), which have been identified as self-congruity, psychological empowerment and public trust. Self-congruity could be enhanced by further investigating the residents' perceived identity through large-scale surveys and adapt the brand identity accordingly. Psychological empowerment could be stimulated by making residents aware of the possibility to participate in the branding process. In the qualitative pre-study competitions and advertisement in local newspapes were mentioned as effective tools. Trust can be enhanced by more transparency, such as outlining the brand identity and purpose of the brand on a platform open to the public.

These are common management approaches in destination branding. Finally, this can lead to 'residents' buy in', which is a desired goal for most DMOs in destination branding, as well as inspire residents' initiatives to treat tourists in a way that reflect the brand values (Anholt, 2002). The results of this study aim thus at giving a guideline for practical implications related to residents and destination branding in the case of Hong Kong and on a global base.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSION

FOREWORD

This chapter will offer the conclusion of the study. As such, an overview of the study will be presented, followed by a discussion on the research objectives and whether or not they have been achieved. This will lead to a reflection on the main findings of the study. Finally, limitations of the research will be elucidated and persisting issues will lead to suggestions for further studies.

7.1. Study overview

This study aims at contributing to the understanding of residents' as an internal destination brand stakeholder, through proposing and validating a model for explaining the antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior (BAB), taking the case of 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City'.

Chapter 1 introduces the background to residents and destination brands, as well as the case of the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand. The role of residents in the destination branding process is not well researched (Eshuis & Edwards, 2012). Past studies have often shown them as being more of a responsibility than an opportunity for DMOs (e.g. Holcomb, 1999). This has led to persisting misunderstanding and unresolved issues on how to deal with this particular stakeholder in practical destination branding (Braun et al., 2010; Pike, 2010). In the case of Hong Kong, several initiatives have been made to involve residents in the branding process and responses have been satisfactory (BrandHK, 2012). Anyhow, what residents can effectively contribute to effective destination branding and how to stimulate this behavior is still poorly understood. This leads to the research objectives of this study, namely (1) to conceptualize the notion of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and understand how it has been used in past research, (2) to recognize possible antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior based on the roles residents play in the destination branding process and (3) to propose and empirically test the framework explaining the antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior.

In chapter 2, relevant literature on the subject has been reviewed. It was found that destination branding is still a confusing subject (Papadoloulos, 2004) and often is poorly understood (Cai, 2002). The role of residents in particular, has not been widely covered in destination branding research and is a remaining critical point (Braun et al., 2013; Pike, 2009). While traditionally seen as more of a responsibility for a DMO, only recent studies suggest that residents can be beneficial for the equity of a destination brand through showing BAB (e.g. Braun et al., 2010; Choo et al., 2011; Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a). Several reflections of these behavioral intention have been identified in literature as WOM, eWOM, participation in brand related promotional events and activities, participation in future brand development, and personal use of promotional material. Nonetheless, most studies were found to only measure BAB through one specific reflection and not offering an overall measurement scale. Next, possible antecedents for BAB have been identified in literature, namely brand attitude, brand self-congruity, brand psychological empowerment, public trust in branding authorities, place attachment as a possible moderator. This has led to the development of hypotheses and a proposed model.

Chapter 3 proposes a conceptual framework based on the proposed hypotheses among the identified constructs. Finally, a total of nine hypotheses is proposed, eight of them linear and one moderating. Self-congruity, empowerment, trust and attitude are proposed to have a direct effect on BAB, while self-congruity, empowerment and trust are also hypothesized to affect attitude. Finally, another link among empowerment and trust is illustrated and place attachment is assumed to moderate the relationship among attitude and BAB.

Chapter 4 explains the methodology of the research, based on the proposed research design of Pizam (1978). Study setting and study population are highlighted, justifying the sampling design and sample size. 200 respondents are proposed for the pilot study and 650 for the main survey. In light of the study context, an online survey is deemed as the most appropriate for this purpose. Next, measurement items are selected from existent literature and adapted to the objective of the research. BAB behavior's measurement items, as it is a new variable, are derived from studies in different contexts. In order to validate the chosen items, a three-step procedure is adopted. First (1), 15 Hong Kong residents are interviewed in-depth, second (2), a panel of experts in the field is consulted and (3), a pilot test with 200 samples is held. Finally, the chapter discusses the final survey for the main data collection and an open-ended question for further information.

In chapter 5, the results of the main study are presented. First, the 650 obtained questionnaires are screened for outliers, missing data, normality and demographics of the respondents. As a result, all of the obtained questionnaires were retained for the study. In order to validate the data, the respondents are randomly split into a holdout sample for Principal Component Analysis and an analysis sample for Confirmatory Factor Analysis, yielding satisfactory results. Next, the measurement model was assessed with the full data, followed by a structural model. Tests demonstrated that the model effectively reflects residents' BAB intentions and their antecedents. Finally, all of the hypotheses are found to be significant expect the moderating function of place attachment. Next, the open-ended question is coded using frequency counts.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the research and offers theoretical and practical contributions, as well as practical implications for DMOs. First, the overall model performance is scrutinized, followed by the individual variables proposed and a discussion of the hypothesized relationship. Next, additional findings which were not a priority of the research are discussed, i.e. possible additional antecedents of BAB identified through the open-ended question and a closer look on the context of Hong Kong's destination brand. The study has successfully developed a BAB construct and confirmed its hypothesized antecedents in the final model. Indeed, the structural model is able to explain 80% of the variance in the BAB construct.

Chapter 7 finally concludes the thesis, giving an overview of the study, a reflection on the research objectives and main findings. Last, the limitations of the study are highlighted and suggestions for future research are given.

7.2. Achievement of research objectives

As mentioned in chapter 1, three research objectives were proposed based on the problem statement.

The first (1) research objective was to conceptualize the notion of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and understand how it has been used in past research. The review of relevant literature has shown that BAB can be understood as planned and spontaneous, promotion and development related, and finally as being based on a brand as a symbolic construct or on destination image. Finally, BAB has been conceptualized as a behavior, which can be reflected through spontaneous, planned, promotion and development related intentions. Research objective 1 has thus been reached.

Research objective 2 was to recognize possible antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior based on the roles residents play in the destination branding process. Through the review of literature, as well as a qualitative pre-study, self-congruity, psychological empowerment, public trust and brand attitude were identified as likely antecedents, with place attachment acting as a possible moderator on the pathway between attitude and BAB intentions. An open-ended question in the main survey has suggested additional possible antecedents for further studies. Research objective 2 has subsequently been achieved.

Last, objective 3 was to propose and empirically test the framework explaining the antecedents of residents' destination brand ambassador behavior. Through the use of SEM a validated framework explaining the antecedents of residents' BAB has been proposed with all the hypotheses, except the moderator, being confirmed. Finally, the results showed that the structural model was able to explain 80% of the variance in the BAB construct. As a result, the last and main objective of the study was achieved.

7.3. Reflection on main findings

The main findings of the study are rooted in the proposed model and the confirmed antecedents of residents' BAB. In other words, the model proposes that residents' brand self-congruity, brand psychological empowerment, and public trust in brand authorities have a positive influence on both, residents' brand attitude and residents' BAB intentions. It was furthermore found that place attachment, which was the only proposed variable not directly related to the branding process, had no moderating effect on the attitude-intention pathway. This would suggest that even residents with relatively low place attachment have the potential to become ambassadors for a destination brand.

Self-congruity in particular has emerged as an important positive antecedent of brand attitude and BAB intentions. This was also confirmed by the qualitative pre-study, where respondents concerned the representation of the local identity and culture within the destination brand. This suggests that DMOs have the potential to enhance destination brand equity for residents through focusing on the representation of the general populations most salient perceived characteristics within the destination brand. Donald and Gammack (2007) had suggested that this is of particular importance in destinations such as Hong Kong, where identity is contested. In general, this suggests that DMOs should focus on destination brands with which residents' can identify in order to transform them into potential ambassadors.

While resident power and trust are concepts mostly investigated in Western contexts when talking about destination brands (e.g. Propst & Jeong, 2012), the concepts have been found to hold also in an Asian, power-distant (The Hofstede Centre, 2013) culture. In order for residents to become brand ambassadors, it is thus important for DMOs to create an image of trust, which can be done through psychologically empowering residents, i.e. let them know that they could contribute to the brand if they effectively wanted to. Management bodies can consider launching competitions or contests, combined with a sufficient level of advertisement in the media. In the case of Hong Kong, online advertisement only was suggested not to be sufficient, as many people are more inclined towards traditional media, such as newspapers or TV.

As a measurement tool for BAB, eWOM was found to be more effective than traditional WOM. This might be due to the fact, as suggested in the interviews, that Hong Kong locals often live a busy and individualist lifestyle. This means that often there is not sufficient time for face-to-face conversations, while the use of internet is still available. Both, development and participation intentions were found as significant reflections of residents' BAB, as well as the use of promotional items. While especially the later is only shortly mentioned in one paper (Konečnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012a), the findings suggest that this concept should be further explored in further studies.

Finally, the results indicated that place attachment does not have a moderating influence on residents' BAB intentions as a consequence of brand attitude. The destination brand in this study has been conceptualized as being a symbolic tool, purposely created for promotion, rather than the destination image. Place attachment was the only variable used which was not directly related to the branding process, and generally place attachment has been related to brands conceptualized as synonymous with destination image in former studies (e.g. Chen & Dwyer; Chen et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012). This suggests that, if the brand is conceptualized as a promotional tool and BAB is directed at this tool rather than at the destination as a whole, also residents with lower levels of place attachment can become brand ambassadors. This can be considered as a major opportunity for DMOs, as they can engage a large number of residents in the branding process, without the need to consider external factors such as place attachment.

7.4. Limitations

No study is without limitation, and also this research has to acknowledge several issues. First, BAB behavior was measured as BAB intentions. Traditionally, behavioral intentions have always been linked to subsequent behavior (e.g. Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), assuming that behavioral intentions precede effective action. Nonetheless, researchers nowadays acknowledge that the road from intentions to behavior is sometimes complicated (Morowitz et al. , 1993). As the current perception of the 'Hong Kong - Asia's World City' brand was a main focus of this study and the subsequent behavioral intentions it causes, a research asking past effective behavior would anyhow not have been appropriate. Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) furthermore state that realistic answers can be stimulated by giving respondents a time frame when to perform a certain action, e.g. within the next five months. As the qualitative pre-study had anyhow shown that HKPRs are not always aware of the possibility to show effective behavior (e.g. online platforms, events), the limit of time frames could have been biasing their answers towards more a negative response. Nonetheless, this research must take into account that BAB intentions do not automatically lead to effective BAB.

Second, the study was held in Hong Kong only and thus its respondents were largely monocultural. Although residents of a cer tain place are an inherently heterogeneous stakeholder, they often have more in common than expected (Sadan, 2010). The fact that this study has been held in a hierarchical, masculine, power-distant and long-term oriented cultural context (The Hofstede Center, 2013) might have biased the outcome of this study. This is especially relevant as related variables, such as trust and empowerment have been used in the model. Nonetheless, the size of the resident stakeholder and its complexity have demanded a focus on a single destination only, while comparative studies might not have been feasible, considering the context of the research.

This raises another issue on t he resident stakeholder. The limited number or related studies have been explained by the fact that residents' are highly heterogeneous and therefore realistic sampling is very difficult. This research has opted for a quota sampling, considering residents' age, gender, and area of residency, based on t he real proportions of HKPRs (The Hong Kong Census and Statistic Department, 2012). Although these are common quotas used to represent larger populations, and a qualitative stage of research has tried to soften this limitation, it is anyhow important to acknowledge this issue. Also, quota sampling is a form of non-probability sampling. As such, it is not possible to estimate the probability of any single member of the population to be included. Whether or not the sample is reliable can also be only estimated on a comparison among the obtained quotas and the quotas which were initially suggested. Probability sampling could have eliminated some of these possible biases.

Following, the limitation of the open-ended question added to the main survey needs to be taken into consideration. The resulting possible antecedents which were suggested for future studies are not rooted in past literature and would need further investigation to be included as antecedents. Also, the open ended questions resulted in largely heterogeneous and very context-specific data, most of it related to Hong Kong an its relevant brand only.

Last, the study was conducted online and thus targets primarily habitual internet users, limiting the realistic representation of older generations and people not owning PCs. Also, it is assumed that the online panel with financial remuneration might have limited the participation of high income-groups in the survey. Although internet use in Hong Kong is considered high with 80% of households owning a PC (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2013) and a quota for older respondents has been selected, it needs anyhow to be acknowledged that not every sub-strata of the population might have been sampled accurately.

7.5. Suggestions for future research

It is also hoped that this study can open doors for future research on the still scarcely explored field of residents and destination branding. As such, this research can be considered as a first stepping stone on the road to the understanding of this topic.

First, the notion of BAB can be further explored by researchers. In particular, this study has developed measurement items for BAB based largely on pre-existing literature. Future studies can look deeper at this concept and try to identify other reflections of effective BAB. It is hoped that future research could also identify context-related factors in order to better explain the notion of residents' BAB.

Second, the present study only looks at the residents' perspective on BAB. Future studies could take the chance and look at other stakeholders, in particular DMOs and what kind of BAB they effectively expect from the residents. As literature on the subject is limited, practitioners might also be able to explain how residents are currently targeted as internal stakeholders by destination brands and which factors do generally spur their positive brand-related behavior.

Third, demographic information was solicited but not used for further data analysis, as secondary data on the possibility of its influence on BAB is scarce. Future studies could pick up on these shortcomings in terms of gender, area of residency, income and education ant test their possible influence on residents' BAB.

Fourth, this opens the door for further exploration of antecedents of residents' BAB. The open-ended question added to the main survey has raised several new concepts, which can be explored in future studies. Rehmet and Dinnie (2013) had found earlier that residents often consider perceived benefits as a main factor when relating to a destination brand. Some of the respondents in the qualitative pre-study and open-ended question have suggested the same in the case of Hong Kong. This opens an exciting opportunity to explore brand ambassador programs, online contests and competitions for residents.

Fifth, the specific case of Hong Kong has highlighted a major concern about destination branding and its effect on mainland Chinese tourists and Hong Kong identity. Respondents have often suggested that liked or disliked the brand, because of its targeting mainland Chinese travelers and representing Hong Kong as distinct from mainland China. Future case studies on the Hong Kong brand could look at this issue in more detail and validate the effect of this perception on BAB intentions. Furthermore, the role of destination branding as a cultural conservator, as well as the role of political ideology in the same context has emerged as important concepts in the context of Hong Kong. These findings could be further explored in BAB-related research.

Last, it is important to notice that this study has been focused on the specific context of Hong Kong and its brand only. Although the hypothesized antecedents of BAB intentions have been identified in previous literature and the proposed model was found to be valid, future studies should attempt to validate these results in another geographical, political and cultural context.

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire for Pilot Study

Residents and destination brands:
Understanding residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and its antecedents

My name is Philipp Wassler, and I am a full-time Ph.D. student at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management (The Hong Kong Polytechnic University). I would like to invite you to participate in my Ph.D. research study which aims at collecting data for a project related to residents and destination brands.

You will be asked to fill out a short questionnaire that will take the case of Hong Kong residents and the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand (see website http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/ for more information in regard). The "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand was developed by the local authorities in 2001 as a tool for promoting Hong Kong to the world. In 2010, the brand was adjusted to fit the vision of local authorities and Hong Kong residents. This has resulted in five core values which are meant to represent Hong Kong, namely 'excellence', 'free', 'enterprising', 'innovative', and 'quality living'. The famous "dragon logo" of the brand was also adapted to a more modern look, meant to represent a fusion among Eastern and Western culture.

Your individual privacy and confidentiality of the information you provide will be maintained in all published and written data analysis resulting from the study. The study is strictly anonymous.

Your participation should take approximately 15 minutes. I kindly ask you to fill it out with as much accuracy as possible. Please understand your participation is entirely on a voluntary basis and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time. Participation in this study involves no major risks whatsoever, be it physical or emotional. Thank you very much for your kind effort and attention.

Contact details of chief investigator:

Philipp Wassler
Ph.D. Research Student
School of Hotel and Tourism Management

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
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居民和旅遊目的地品牌：
瞭解居民的目的地品牌大使行為與其成因

你好，我的名字是菲利普· □斯勒。我是一名就讀于香港理工大學，酒店與旅遊業管理學院的博士生。在此誠邀你參與我有關居民和目的地品牌的博士研究項目。

你將被邀請填寫一份有關香港居民和“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌的問卷（請瀏覽 http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/獲取相關信息）。“香港· 亞洲國際都會”是香港旅遊發展局在 2001 年向全世界推廣香港時採納的品牌定位。而到了 2010 年，這一定位已根據本地政府和居民提出的的願景作出了調整，提出了“傑出”、“自由”、“進取”、“創新”、和“高質”這五個代表香港精神的核心價□觀。大家所熟悉，代表這一品牌的“騰龍圖案”，也修改得更加現代和時尚，象徵著中西文化的交匯。

在分析數據，發表研究的過程中，你所提供有關個人隱私的信息將會被保密。這一研究的數據收集將會完全匿名。

問卷大約需要 15 分鐘來完成，但我懇請你能儘量準確地填寫。你的參與將完全基於自願的原則，你也有隨時退出的權利。同時，這一研究的參與將不會帶來物質或精神上損失的風險。非常感激你的支持與協助。

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□你□以下表述根据同意的程度按“1”（非常不同意），到“7”（非常同意）□行□分。

		1 Strongly agree	2 agree	3 Slightly agree	4 Neutral	5 Slightly disagree	6 Disagree	7 Strongly agree
1	I like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我喜歡“香港·亞洲國際都會”這一品牌。							
2	“Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” is a good brand “香港·亞洲國際都會”是一個好的品牌定位。							
3	I have a positive impression of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我□“香港·亞洲國際都會”有□极的印象。							
4	I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable 我覺得“香港·亞洲國際都會”這一品牌很令人喜歡。							
5	I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong 我覺得“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌是推廣香港的途徑。							
6	Given the chance, I would recommend to other people they would support the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我會建議其他人去支持“香港·亞洲國際都會”這個品牌。							

7	Given the chance, I would talk directly with other people about my experience with the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 如果有機會，我會和其他人分享我對"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的體會。							
8	Given the chance, I would suggest to others that they should attend "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions) 如果有機會，我會建議其他人去參加有關"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的推廣節事和活動（例如節慶、展覽）。							
9	Given the chance, I would write about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" online so that my internet-contacts would get to know this brand 如果有機會，我會在網上介紹"香港·亞洲國際都會"這品牌，讓線上的朋友瞭解這個品牌。							
10	Given the chance, I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online 如果有機會，我會在網上分享"香港·亞洲國際都會"這一品牌的相關信息。							

11	Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand online to make sure my internet-contacts would know 如果有機會，我會儘量在網上傳播“香港·亞洲國際都會”這品牌，讓線上的朋友都知道。							
12	I plan to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions) 我將會參與有關“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌的推廣節事和活動（例如節慶、展覽）							
13	I don't expect to participate in future “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions) 我將不會參與有關“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌的推廣節事和活動（例如節慶、展覽）							
14	Given the chance, I would contribute to the “Hong Kong –Asia’s World City” brand’s development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) 如果有機會，我會致力於“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌的發展（例如表達意見、參與在線活動）。							

15	I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) 我將會參與"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的發展（例如表達意見、參與在線活動）。							
16	I don't expect to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) 我將不會參與"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的發展（例如表達意見、參與在線活動）。							
17	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material frequently 如果有機會，我會頻繁使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							
18	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material whenever appropriate 如果有機會，我會在適當的時候使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							
19	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material in the near future 如果有機會，我會在不久的將來使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							

20	I can identify with the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 我認同"香港·亞洲國際都會"這一品牌。							
21	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a lot like me 我身上有不少"香港·亞洲國際都會"這一品牌的特質。							
22	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand reflects what I am "香港·亞洲國際都會"的品牌展現了我自己。							
23	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is how I see myself "香港·亞洲國際都會"的品牌體現了我對自己的看法。							
24	If I would be a brand, I would be "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" 若我有個人品牌，它會和"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌吻合。							
25	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" image corresponds to my self-image in many respects "香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌在很多方面與我的個人形象符合。							
26	Through the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand I can express what I find important in life "香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌能□體現我的價□觀。							
27	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand represents the local people appropriately "香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌适合代表本地居民。							

28	I feel I have a pretty good understanding regarding the issues surrounding the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 我感覺自己對於有關"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的定義比較清楚。							
29	I want to have as much as possible in influencing a government program like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 我想盡可能在政府計劃項目中發揮作用，比如在"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌活動中。							
30	People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting programs like the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 和我一樣的很多人，應有資格參與例如"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌項目的決策活動。							
31	There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand funds are spent 和我一樣的很多人，應可從多種渠道表達他們對於"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌項目資金分配的看法。							
32	It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the outcome of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand 我很重視對"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌項目有影響的投票權。							

33	I can generally trust the decisions made by the Hong Kong Tourism Board 一般情況下，我對香港旅遊發展局的決定有信心。							
34	I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the Hong Kong Tourism Board 一般情況下，我信任香港旅遊發展局的負責人。							
35	The Hong Kong Tourism Board can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them 即使沒有我們持續監督，香港旅遊發展局都能作出正確的決定。							
36	The Hong Kong Tourism Board is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists to Hong Kong 香港旅遊發展局正在吸引最適合來港的遊客群體。							
37	The Hong Kong Tourism Board has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong 香港旅遊發展局已通過建立“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌為香港人帶來益處。							
38	I feel my personal values are reflected in Hong Kong 我覺得我的個人價□觀在香港能得到體現。							
39	I identify strongly with Hong Kong 我對香港有很深的認同感。							
40	Hong Kong means a lot to me 香港對於我而言意義重大。							

41	I am very attached to Hong Kong 我對香港有很深的感情。							
42	I feel a strong sense of belonging to Hong Kong 我對香港有很強烈的歸屬感。							
43	If I was away from Hong Kong, I would lose contact with a number of friends 如果離開香港，我將會失去和很多朋友的聯繫。							
44	Many of my friends/family prefer Hong Kong over other places 我的許多朋友和家人喜歡香港多於其他地方。							
45	I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in Hong Kong 我在香港有很多與朋友和家人的快樂時光。							
46	I have a special connection to the people living in Hong Kong 我和在香港生活的人有一種特別的聯繫。							
47	For the activities that I enjoy, Hong Kong is the best 在我喜歡的活動中，香港能提供的是最好的。							
48	I prefer Hong Kong over other places for activities that I enjoy 相比其他地方，我更願意在香港進行我喜歡的活動。							
49	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting in Hong Kong 沒有其他地方，能比香港更能提供我所喜歡的休閒活動和場所。							

50	Other places cannot compare to Hong Kong 其他地方都比不上香港。							
51	When others suggest alternatives to Hong Kong for the activities that I enjoy, I still choose Hong Kong 即使有人提出其他地方，我仍選擇香港進行休閒活動。							

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire for Main Study

Residents and destination brands:
Understanding residents' destination brand ambassador behavior and its antecedents

My name is Philipp Wassler, and I am a full-time Ph.D. student at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management (The Hong Kong Polytechnic University). I would like to invite you to participate in my Ph.D. research study which aims at collecting data for a project related to residents and destination brands.

You will be asked to fill out a short questionnaire that will take the case of Hong Kong residents and the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand (see website http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/ for more information in regard). The "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand was developed by the local authorities in 2001 as a tool for promoting Hong Kong to the world. In 2010, the brand was adjusted to fit the vision of local authorities and Hong Kong residents. This has resulted in five core values which are meant to represent Hong Kong, namely 'excellence', 'free', 'enterprising', 'innovative', and 'quality living'. The famous "dragon logo" of the brand was also adapted to a more modern look, meant to represent a fusion among Eastern and Western culture.

Your individual privacy and confidentiality of the information you provide will be maintained in all published and written data analysis resulting from the study. The study is strictly anonymous.

Your participation should take approximately 15 minutes. I kindly ask you to fill it out with as much accuracy as possible. Please understand your participation is entirely on a voluntary basis and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time. Participation in this study involves no major risks whatsoever, be it physical or emotional. Thank you very much for your kind effort and attention.

Contact details of chief investigator:

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居民和旅遊目的地品牌：
瞭解居民的目的地品牌大使行為與其成因

你好，我的名字是菲利普· □斯勒。我是一名就讀于香港理工大學，酒店與旅遊業管理學院的博士生。在此誠邀你參與我有關居民和目的地品牌的博士研究項目。

你將被邀請填寫一份有關香港居民和“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌的問卷（請瀏覽 http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/獲取相關信息）。“香港· 亞洲國際都會”是香港旅遊發展局在 2001 年向全世界推廣香港時採納的品牌定位。而到了 2010 年，這一定位已根據本地政府和居民提出的的願景作出了調整，提出了“傑出”、“自由”、“進取”、“創新”、和“高質”這五個代表香港精神的核心價□觀。大家所熟悉，代表這一品牌的“騰龍圖案”，也修改得更加現代和時尚，象徵著中西文化的交匯。

在分析數據，發表研究的過程中，你所提供有關個人隱私的信息將會被保密。這一研究的數據收集將會完全匿名。

問卷大約需要 15 分鐘來完成，但我懇請你能儘量準確地填寫。你的參與將完全基於自願的原則，你也有隨時退出的權利。同時，這一研究的參與將不會帶來物質或精神上損失的風險。非常感激你的支持與協助。

研究負責人信息：

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□你□以下表述根据同意的程度按“1”（非常不同意），到“7”（非常同意）□行□分。

		1 Strongly agree	2 agree	3 Slightly agree	4 Neutral	5 Slightly disagree	6 Disagree	7 Strongly agree
1	I like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我喜歡“香港·亞洲國際都會”這一品牌。							
2	“Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” is a good brand “香港·亞洲國際都會”是一個好的品牌定位。							
3	I have a positive impression of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我□“香港·亞洲國際都會”有□极的印象。							
4	I find the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand very likable 我覺得“香港·亞洲國際都會”這一品牌很令人喜歡。							
5	I like the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand as a promotional tool for Hong Kong 我覺得“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌是推廣香港的途徑。							
6	Given the chance, I would write about the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” online so that my internet-contacts would get to know this brand 如果有機會，我會在網上介紹“香港·亞洲國際都會”這品牌，讓線上的朋友瞭解這個品牌。							

7	Given the chance, I would pass information about the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand to my friends online 如果有機會，我會在網上分享"香港·亞洲國際都會"這一品牌的相關信息。							
8	Given the chance, I would maximize the diffusion of the "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand online to make sure my internet-contacts would know 如果有機會，我會儘量在網上傳播"香港·亞洲國際都會"這品牌，讓線上的朋友都知道。							
9	I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand related promotional events and activities (e.g. festivals, exhibitions) 我將會參與有關"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的推廣節事和活動（例如節慶、展覽）							
10	Given the chance, I would contribute to the "Hong Kong – Asia's World City" brand's development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) 如果有機會，我會致力於"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的發展（例如表達意見、參與在線活動）。							
11	I plan to participate in future "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) 我將會參與"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌的發展（例如表達意見、參與在線活動）。							

12	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material frequently 如果有機會，我會頻繁使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							
13	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material whenever appropriate 如果有機會，我會在適當的時候使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							
14	Given the chance, I would use "Hong Kong –Asia's World City" promotional material in the near future 如果有機會，我會在不久的將來使用"香港·亞洲國際都會"的宣傳資料。							
15	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is a lot like me 我身上有不少"香港·亞洲國際都會"這一品牌的特質。							
16	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand reflects what I am "香港·亞洲國際都會"的品牌展現了我自己。							
17	The "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" brand is how I see myself "香港·亞洲國際都會"的品牌體現了我對自己的看法。							
18	If I would be a brand, I would be "Hong Kong- Asia's World City" 若我有個人品牌，它會和"香港·亞洲國際都會"品牌吻合。							

19	The “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” image corresponds to my self-image in many respects “香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌在很多方面與我的個人形象符合。							
20	Through the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand I can express what I find important in life “香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌能□體現我的價□觀。							
21	People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting programs like the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 和我一樣的很多人，應有資格參與例如“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌項目的決策活動。							
22	There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand funds are spent 和我一樣的很多人，應可從多種渠道表達他們對於“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌項目資金分配的看法。							
23	It is important for me to vote in elections that might influence the outcome of the “Hong Kong- Asia’s World City” brand 我很重視對“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌項目有影響的投票權。							

24	I can generally trust the decisions made by the Hong Kong Tourism Board 一般情況下，我對香港旅遊發展局的決定有信心。							
25	I can generally trust the people who are in charge of the Hong Kong Tourism Board 一般情況下，我信任香港旅遊發展局的負責人。							
26	The Hong Kong Tourism Board can be trusted to do what is right without our having to constantly check on them 即使沒有我們持續監督，香港旅遊發展局都能作出正確的決定。							
27	The Hong Kong Tourism Board is attracting the most appropriate category of tourists to Hong Kong 香港旅遊發展局正在吸引最適合來港的遊客群體。							
28	The Hong Kong Tourism Board has launched the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand to benefit the people of Hong Kong 香港旅遊發展局已通過建立“香港·亞洲國際都會”品牌為香港人帶來益處。							
29	I feel my personal values are reflected in Hong Kong 我覺得我的個人價□觀在香港能得到體現。							
30	I identify strongly with Hong Kong 我對香港有很深的認同感。							
31	Hong Kong means a lot to me 香港對於我而言意義重大。							

32	I am very attached to Hong Kong 我對香港有很深的感情。							
33	I feel a strong sense of belonging to Hong Kong 我對香港有很強烈的歸屬感。							
34	If I was away from Hong Kong, I would lose contact with a number of friends 如果離開香港，我將會失去和很多朋友的聯繫。							
35	Many of my friends/family prefer Hong Kong over other places 我的許多朋友和家人喜歡香港多於其他地方。							
36	I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in Hong Kong 我在香港有很多與朋友和家人的快樂時光。							
37	I have a special connection to the people living in Hong Kong 我和在香港生活的人有一種特別的聯繫。							
38	For the activities that I enjoy, Hong Kong is the best 在我喜歡的活動中，香港能提供的是最好的。							
39	I prefer Hong Kong over other places for activities that I enjoy 相比其他地方，我更願意在香港進行我喜歡的活動。							
40	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting in Hong Kong 沒有其他地方，能比香港更能提供我所喜歡的休閒活動和場所。							

41	Other places cannot compare to Hong Kong 其他地方都比不上香港。							
42	When others suggest alternatives to Hong Kong for the activities that I enjoy, I still choose Hong Kong 即使有人提出其他地方，我仍選擇香港進行休閒活動。							

Additional question:

What would motivate you to support the "Hong Kong - Asia's World City" brand in terms of brand development (e.g. express related concerns, join related online activities) and promotion (e.g. participate in promotional events and share related information):
其他：
你會因為什麼而支持“香港·亞洲國際都會”的品牌建設（例如表達相關意見，參加相關在線活動）和推廣（例如參加推廣活動和分享相關信息）：

APPENDIX C: Interview guide for qualitative pre-study

Name: Length (min)

Age:

Sex:

Area:

Job:

Topic	Issues	Suggestions	Sample questions
Hong Kong - life			- What do you think about life in HK? - How can HK compare to other cities? - How is the quality of life in HK?
Relationship with HK			- Do you feel attached to HK? - Do you relate more to place or people? - Have you ever considered moving?
Asia's World City			- What do you know about AWC? - Any opinions about the brand? - Please share your feelings about AWC
HK Tourism Board			- Do you know who is responsible for AWC? - What do you know about HKTB? - Do you think HKTB performs well?
HK identity			- Please describe HK identity - Do you feel represented by AWC? - What does it mean to be a HKer?
Promotion of HK			- How would you promote HK and its people? - Do you like how AWC projects you?

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Figure 1.2. Hong Kong – Asia's World City. Brand HK. The current bilingual version of the brand logo. Retrieved 5 February 2013 from http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/en/

Figure 1.3. A winning painting from 'Create Hong Kong 2020' drawing contest.. Retrieved 15 July 2013 from http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/en/#/en/myHK/myhk2020/competitions.html

Figure 1.4. One of the 30 highest rated photographs submitted. Retrieved 15 July 2013 from http://www.brandhk.gov.hk/ebook/result.html#4